

The Excursion as a Teaching Technique

By

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Chapter I

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

THE very word "excursion" carries with it a certain suggestiveness of pleasurable excitement. When we first make its acquaintance in childhood, it is usually associated with some kind of pleasant experience on a short trip that perhaps brings us a welcome variation from customary routines. Its pleasurable connotation finds support in the actual derivative sense of the word, for it means literally "a running out or forth," and hence, by implication, a departure of some sort from the usual round of activities, and a "running out" to meet—just what? "Just what" is perhaps of relatively little moment in comparison with the essential fact that it is a going out to meet—to meet new experiences—objects, persons, ideas—and to feel the heightened sense of living which accompanies the exploration of new fields. Such a reaching out after new experiences is no recently acquired tendency of the human race. Its impetus may indeed be sought in one of the two fundamental reactions of all living things which mankind shares with the amoeba! It would seem therefore as if the "excursion" must be at least as old as society itself.

Prior to any common use of written language, an excursion was practically the sole method of acquiring information concerning matters beyond the confines of an individual's own limited environment, or, failing that, an opportunity to listen to reports from persons who had made excursions. We may be allowed to think of the Homeric bards and of the wandering minstrels of the Middle Ages as excursionists on the grand scale who brought to the peoples among whom they wandered a knowledge of remote places and men and ideas. Long before the age of Pericles, well-to-do Greeks were traveling—to secure information. Only by means of extended travels—in Egypt and other eastern lands—did Herodotus verify hearsay and obtain the mass of information included in his history. And,

centuries later, when the imagination of a Marco Polo or a Columbus was captured by tales of returned travellers, such men could go to no library and sit in a quiet corner to read of the wonders of Cathay or of a westward route to the Spice Islands, but must set forth themselves to try to reach the lands that stirred their interest.

In the course of time a sojourn away from home came to be regarded as an essential to the completion of an education, and we read of Greek and Roman youths travelling to Athens, Rhodes, Alexandria, and other intellectual centers of the ancient world. Experiences so obtained have ever since been highly regarded from an educational standpoint, nor has such regard been limited to the purely cultural values of such diversified contacts. Witness to the recognized practical value of first-hand knowledge is found in the medieval practice common among the young journeymen who, on completion of their apprenticeships, set out to exercise their callings in many different regions—usually of their own countries—and thus gain extended experience before settling down to carry on their trades in some particular locality. These years of travel were the *Wanderjahre* of the German workman. Equally as a matter of course, the young French workingman made his “tour de France” before returning to his native locality to establish himself. This practice was in a manner the working class equivalent to the acquisition of a trade skill of the “Grand Tour” of the continent, and in particular, of Italy, which, especially from the period of the Renaissance, came to be looked upon as an essential to the education of the “gentleman.” Both the continental tour of the young patricians and the wander years of the young workingmen point to the common agreement regarding the worth of first-hand knowledge—in the case of the well-to-do as a purely cultural asset, and in the case of the workman as an important vocational asset.

After the multiplication of books which followed the invention of printing, and the gradual establishment of universal education, educational emphasis was transferred to the printed page, and the word “education” tended more and more to become synonymous with “book-learning.” The desirability of personal acquaintance with other countries and peoples had to be forgotten—or at least left unemphasized, because the financial expenditure was impossible

for the vast majority of the children who were now everywhere receiving instruction in "the three R's" as a matter of course. But, little by little, the common school curriculum was supplemented by the addition of classes in geography, physics, botany, and—although not until after many long years—the teaching of natural science led ultimately to the establishment of laboratories in which pupils might handle for themselves the objects of which they studied, and prove for themselves some of the truths that could be merely stated in the textbooks. Some subjects needed field-trips for the gathering of laboratory specimens, and pupils sometimes were allowed to participate in these trips. Thus, primarily as an offshoot of the laboratory method, the idea of the school excursion was born. The application of the excursion procedure to the study of certain problems in the field of the social sciences soon followed, and the gradually increasing use of the plan is a natural consequence of the effort of modern educational theory to substitute real personal experience for the vicarious classroom experiences which have come down to us from the earlier days.

A fundamental aim of contemporary pedagogical theory is to establish its educational structure on the firm foundation of the child's interests. Among these we are told is "the love of sensory life for its own sake. Merely to have sensations is, other things being equal, satisfying to man. . . . Man wants sense impressions for sensation's sake. Novel experiences are to him their own sufficient reward. It is because they satisfy this want as well as because of their intrinsic satisfyingness, that visual exploration and manipulation are the almost incessant occupations of our waking infancy."¹ In the healthy organism nerve energy discharges into countless channels, leading to all kinds of exploratory activities. From even before the moment of the infant's delighted discovery of its own toes as a fascinating part of its environment, through the varied and varying manifestations of curiosity during the years of childhood and adolescence, and throughout the whole life of the intellectually alert adult, the native interest in new objects and experiences persists.

To meet the need to learn by direct experience, and at the same

¹ E. L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology, Briefer Course*, p. 64 1914.

time to guide and direct it, so-called "activity programs" of all kinds have been developed—every type of organization that has to face educational problems. The offerings of Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, Young Men's and Women's Christian and Hebrew Associations, social settlements, institutional churches, and scores of other organizations provide activity programs which cater directly to this need. The desire to explore, and to experience life personally, reaches a peak in the adolescent years, and the school excursion in many ways meets admirably these needs for pupils of secondary school age.

The schools themselves are increasingly making provision for pupils to participate actively in the learning process. Extensive library and classroom equipment is provided to meet many varied interests. Laboratories invite actual experiment with materials and processes. But perhaps no other one thing combines so many desirable elements at once as does the school excursion. A pupil may listen more or less indifferently to a talk about the weathering of rocks, but he can scarcely remain indifferent when some of the striking effects of erosion are brought before his own eyes during an excursion. He reads in the pages of a history the story of Egypt or of ancient Rome; a visit to a museum may permit him to step into the actual tomb of some old pharaoh, to note the strange hieroglyphics on the walls of the burial chamber, to see the ointment jars, the dishes, the food, placed before the altar of the departed spirit; or perhaps to walk about in a Roman courtyard,—and picture Caesar at home in his own villa! Hieroglyphics and peristylum are no longer just difficult words but are words which live with a new meaning. He studies, perhaps, something of the processes of textile or automobile manufacture, but an excursion brings him a glimpse of vast buildings, powerful machinery, complicated processes, complex human relations, that no words or classroom illustrations could ever achieve in the absence of the actual experience.

"If the business of schools," writes a committee which studied the excursions made by a group of Philadelphia schools, "is 'to teach pupils to perform better those desirable activities that they are going to perform anyway, and to reveal higher activities and at the same

time make them desired and to an extent possible,' then the excursion has a definite part to play in high school instruction."²

The excursion provides the actual experiences which are essential to all true understanding and appreciation, and in addition provides them in a setting demanding the sort of social cooperation which all pupils must learn to give as members of organized society. It is in its as yet unmeasured social values that the excursion may claim to take precedence of the laboratory as a means of introduction to the world in which the child must live.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The present study has undertaken to discover, analyze, and in a measure evaluate, various excursion techniques with a view to making available to teachers and administrators information which would enable them to achieve a more effective utilization of the educational opportunities which might be found inherent in the excursion technique. Inasmuch as comparatively little work has been done on the subject, still less written, and but few surveys of current practice and opinion made, it has seemed as if a somewhat comprehensive study of the whole field of the excursion would prove of greater practical value than an intensive study of any single aspect. Besides such a general study, however, in order to offer some more cogent argument for increased use of the excursion procedure than is afforded by mere opinion of its worth—no matter how widely such opinion is found to be held, or upon what grounds it may be based—the results of using the excursion technique have been compared experimentally with the results obtained by another teaching method.

In pursuance of the purpose stated above, the problem has been approached from four different directions.

1. The excursion has been studied in certain European countries in which it is extensively used in order to learn details of the procedures employed.

2. An examination of the development of the excursion in the United States has been made, and of practices common among teachers using it.

² Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Philadelphia*, Book IV, p. 135. 1922.

3. The procedures in current use have been analyzed, and a tentative technique has been developed.

4. Results obtained by using an excursion technique have been measured and compared with those obtained from the use of a different teaching method.

DEFINITION

The expression "school excursion" is used in the present study to designate any kind of definitely organized trip with a primarily educational purpose, made by a group of pupils as a part of their regular school work. Any trip which grows out of the study of a subject, and is undertaken by a group of students for its instructional value, falls within the scope of the school excursion as defined above. Such an excursion may be of minutes' or days' duration; it may—and, when prolonged, usually will—include a variety of incidental activities many of which may be purely social; but provided it is carried through essentially as a means of instruction it is entitled to inclusion in the category of school excursions.

And, also by definition, many of the excursions often undertaken by school groups are automatically excluded from consideration in this study. Trips taken to attend or participate in athletic contests, pleasure excursions made by one or another extra-curricular organization, trips of graduating classes, are all omitted from consideration because the instructional value which they possess is incidental.

PROCEDURE

It has seemed desirable to approach the study of the problem by (1) securing from an examination of the literature whatever information and suggestion it may hold; (2) approaching principals and teachers directly through the questionnaire; (3) utilizing the findings of such survey in the development of a tentative excursion technique; (4) comparing the value of its results with the value of results obtained through the use of another more commonly employed method of instruction.

The most complete picture of the educational excursion can be best obtained through a study of its practice in the countries that have used it extensively—Germany and England. Three sources

have been drawn upon for information concerning European usage—the educational literature, personal interviews with educators familiar with its use in foreign states, and correspondence with the Ministries of Education in several countries and with the School Journey Association in England.

The use of the excursion in the United States is next traced. A thorough examination has been made of all available literature, including several studies dealing with special aspects of the excursion. Information regarding details of current practice on certain selected points has been obtained through questionnaires addressed directly to principals and teachers. A tentative excursion technique has been developed, and applied to the teaching of ancient history in two carefully controlled experiments. A statistical comparison is made of results obtained from the excursion technique and from the class-discussion method which was used in teaching the groups.

Chapter II

ORIGINS AND USE OF THE SCHOOL EXCURSION IN SOME FOREIGN COUNTRIES

THE causes underlying the development of the excursion method have not been the same in every country, nor are the ends which it serves everywhere identical. Present variations in its conduct are closely related to national educational policies and political philosophies. A brief historical study of the influences that have led to its increasing use, and an examination of the present manner of its organization, may serve to throw into relief some of the values inherent in the excursion as an instructional method, and to suggest practices that may well be adopted or adapted in the development of an excursion technique for this country.

Great Britain, nearly all of the continental European countries, and Japan have made their experiments with the educational excursion, but, inasmuch as Germany and England lead all the others, both in the extent to which they have accepted it as a teaching method and in the development of means to encourage it, these countries naturally invite first consideration.

THE SCHOOL EXCURSION IN GERMANY ¹

Contribution of the Youth Movement.—It is in Germany that the school excursion has been more frequently used than in other lands. It won recognition there as an acceptable method of instruction, and became a definitely established part of the school program. The initial impulse to its employment seems to have been received from the German Youth Movement. This Youth Movement, which originated in the late nineties, was in part the outcome of a reaction against the traditional education with its emphasis upon the training

¹ Dr. E. Hylla, former member of the Prussian Ministry of Education, and later a member of the faculty of New College, Teachers College, Columbia University, has furnished definite information regarding the use of the excursion in the German schools.

of the intellect and its neglect of the emotional needs and interests of the adolescent pupil. The decades preceding its birth had witnessed the rapid industrialization of large areas of the country, the concentration of the population into great cities, and the consequent loss of opportunity for the freedom and enjoyment of life in the open which is the birthright of those living in a less complex society. Rebellion against the imposed restraints and conventions, the "back-to-the-land" urge in search of freedom, the demand for first-hand experience and knowledge to supplement the dry-as-dust discipline of the classroom, and the desire to set up chosen standards rather than blindly to accept those imposed by authority—all these, and more, played their part in the inception of the Youth Movement and its swift conquest of the country. The movement was far more than a reaction against obsolescent educational ideas; it was inspired by the idealism of youth as well as by its rebelliousness. It stood for freedom, social and spiritual—for the desire for fellowship, the pursuit of ideals, the right to choose one's own patterns of thought and conduct; it stood for devotion to the Fatherland—to its native music, arts, folklore, and it sought to become a constructive social and cultural force. Excursions through the countryside, short tramps of a day or ambitious journeyings of much wider range, offered opportunity for comradeship, for conversation and song and camping joys shared with others of like age and interests, for learning something of the peoples and customs of different regions, and for comparing rural with urban life.

It was Karl Fischer, a teacher in the Gymnasium at Steglitz, not far from Potsdam, who is credited with the organization of the first group of students to defy tradition and roam through forests and across hills to gratify their desire for a new freedom.² Often, during that summer of 1896, they stole out from the quiet little town on the Havel Lakes in time to greet the sun from the tops of the neighboring hills. The boys were dressed, scout fashion, with short trousers and bright kerchiefs around their necks. They hiked, slept in barns or in the open, learned to know the peasants, and sang with them the folk songs of Germany. The boys themselves met with sufficient reproach for such unprecedented behavior, but it was Karl Fischer who bore

² A. M. Peck, *Young Germany*, p. 25. 1931.

the brunt of the blame for his part in encouraging lack of that "common sense" which a schoolmaster should be counted on to possess, and it was not long until he came to be commonly referred to as "that crazy Fischer."

The young *Wandervögel*, as the members of the groups called themselves, filled with love of country and of all for which it stood, were stirred by the sense that the village festivals, folk songs, folk dances, or works of native art that they learned to know were a part of their own heritage, and they lent every effort to preserve them. The movement stirred violent opposition in some quarters, but on the whole, and for various reasons, won the encouragement and support of the older generation.

The enthusiasm inspired by the Youth Movement, and the ideals permeating it, were strikingly demonstrated at a gathering of *Wandervögel* on the Hohe Meissner in 1913. Around a great camp-fire, on this summit so closely linked with traditional lore, assembled more than a thousand of the *Wandervögel* to proclaim the right to make their own decisions on their own responsibility. This was the first attempt to formulate the purpose of the movement, and it has remained the unifying force down to the present day.

The character of the Youth Movement has been well summed up by Kandel, who writes:

The youth movement was more than rebellion of youth against restrictions and conventions imposed on them by adult generations and by the school authorities. It was inspired by clear and definite constructive ideas; it emphasized a return to nature and simplicity, free from the incubus of the conventions and artificialities of industrialized urban life; it laid stress upon freedom for youth to determine its own life in accordance with its own ideals rather than standards imposed by others; it preached the gospel of social responsibility and brotherhood; and it sought to spread an appreciation of the real foundations of German culture—its music, art, drama, folkways, and folk customs—instead of the conventional culture of the schoolroom.⁹

One of the obstacles to the spread of the movement was the lack of suitable quarters in which the groups might spend a night or longer on their trips. At first they usually slept in the open, or in barns or peasant cottages, but such accommodations were often but poor makeshifts. The creation of an interest in providing better homes is largely due to the efforts of Richard Schirrmann, an elementary

⁹ I. L. Kandel, *Comparative Education*, pp. 427-428. 1933.

schoolmaster of Gelsenkirchen, in Westphalia. As a result of an article describing a plan for the building of hostels, which he published in an educational journal in 1900, a number of small hostels were opened for elementary pupils. One of these was made in the attic of Schirrmann's own school. The attic was transformed into kitchen, sleeping quarters, and library. Schirrmann invited pupils from neighboring towns to use the attic, to cook their own meals there, to spend a night or two, and to become acquainted with his own students. Before long other groups asked for the privilege of using the attic, and the town fathers, sympathetic with the new movement and interested in helping it to succeed, began to look about for suitable housing for the youthful excursionists. The old castle at Altena, a picturesque little town in the hills of Westphalia, seemed to lend itself to the purpose; and, in 1909, this ancestral home of the margraves was opened as the first real "Youth Hostel." The Altena Hostel has stood ever since as a sentinel in the forward march of the youth movement in the most highly industrialized section of Germany. Through the doors of this one hostel in the past twenty-eight years have passed more than 200,000 hostellers to proclaim enthusiastically the joys of an exciting and invigorating experience. As the demand for such hostels grew in the neighboring counties, a central organization was established in the little town of Hilchenbach, in the near-by Rothhaar Mountains. This marked the real beginning of the national German Youth Hostel Association.

It is seen from Table 1 that the number of night's accommodation provided, a mere 3,000 in one of the early years of the Hostel Association's life grew in the course of a little over two decades to nearly half a million. Of the visitors to the hostels in 1926, thirty per cent were elementary pupils, thirty-two per cent came from secondary schools and universities, and thirty-eight per cent belonged to the young working group.⁴ The membership in the Hostel Association increased over a hundred-fold in eleven years, from 11,000 in 1921 to 128,200 in 1932. In fact, it increased a great deal more than a hundred per cent for the 128,200 members include many clubs, schools, etc., which are enrolled as individual members.

⁴ T. Alexander and B. Parker, *The New Education in the German Republic*, p. 41. 1929.

TABLE I
INCREASE IN NUMBER AND USE OF HOSTELS⁶

Year	Number of Hostels	Number of Night's Lodging Provided
1911	17	3,000
1913	83	21,000
1919	300	60,000
1921	1,300	506,000
1924	2,000	1,106,000
1926	2,147	2,107,000
1928	2,177	3,276,000
1930	2,106	4,233,000
1932	2,124	4,279,000
1933	2,000	4,600,000

The recently established hostels are quite completely equipped for their purpose, whether their exterior be that of ancient castle or peasant hut, of medieval cloister or modern dwelling house. Many are farmhouses, some are schoolrooms, and others are old army barracks. One is a floating hostel on the Elbe River; another, the old Schloss Hahnstein, a castle fortress accommodating 1,200 guests, is perched high on the craggy slopes of the Saxon hills.

Peck gives an interesting glimpse into one of the hostels that she saw during her travel in Germany:

Towards evening, as I was returning from my walk, I saw a sign near the railway station, "*Jugendherberge*." . . . I went over to it and found a long, low house with wide eaves and small-paned windows, rather like the Black Forest farmhouses. As I was asking the woman in charge of the house if I might visit it, my friends of the morning appeared and invited me in. They showed me around with the greatest friendliness. There was a big "day room" furnished with long tables, chairs, a big porcelain stove for cold weather, and a shelf of books and magazines. The fresh white curtains at the windows gave a homelike touch to the room. There were rooms full of bunks for boys and girls, and washrooms for each with rows of basins and running water. In the kitchen there were several single-burner gas stoves as well as a big one, and some boys and girls were busily preparing supper for themselves. They told me this *Jugendherberge* could shelter 140 young people.⁶

The Youth Hostel Association aims at the goal of 10,000 hostels, and the enrollment of every elementary and secondary school in

⁶ J. W. Taylor, *Youth Welfare in Germany*, p. 97, 1936. Statistics taken from *Reichsjugendherbersverzeichnis* for 1932, 1933, 1934.

⁶ A. M. Peck, *Young Germany*, pp. 6-7. 1931.

Germany! This ambitious program seems not impossible of realization, for more than 2,000 hostels have already been established, and Boards of Education in many cities have enrolled all the schools within their jurisdiction.⁷ Today, the sight of the familiar D. J. H. (*Deutsche Jugendherberge*) in the triangular symbol over the doors of the hostels stir memories of gay and adventurous comradeship in the thousands of young people who have lodged in them. The same emblem is used in all of the eighteen countries in which hostels exist, its distinguishing variation in each country being the letter designating the country.

The Youth Movement stimulated in two ways the use of the excursion as a method of instruction. In the first place, the popularity of the youth excursions, and the frequency with which the groups were met travelling under the guidance of a few "eccentric" schoolmasters who were alive to the educational opportunities of this form of recreation, led to the gradual recognition of the need for more physical exercise and recreation in the schools. The pupils themselves, as they found through the youth organizations increasing opportunity to win freedom from the grip of the traditional formalism of the school-group practices, helped to introduce the spirit of the hostel into the classroom activities. Leaders in the educational field joined in the various activities of the youth programs and capitalized the opportunity to give the excursions an educational as well as a recreational purpose. The excursion with educational objective once adopted, its development into a force potent to liberalize the school program was merely a question of time.

In the second place, through the network of hostels brought into being in response to the needs of the Youth Movement, it became possible to plan school excursions of greater radius than before. The hostels have no relation to the school system, but they grant membership to a teacher, or to a school as a group, thus encouraging their use for school excursions. The annual membership fee for a school is equivalent to about seventy-five cents. The schools give instruction regarding the proper use of the hostel and the duties and privileges of guests. Maps showing location of hostels, lists of the

⁷ The *Springfield Sunday Republican*, Springfield, Mass., November 18, 1934, reports 2,600 hostels accommodating 4,500,000 guests in the summer of 1934.

provisions to be found in them and charges made for their use, railway rates, and suggestions for itineraries, are also obtainable through the schools. Often the school buildings are used as hostels when other accommodations are not available. Railways cooperate by lowering rates to half-fare for students travelling in groups with their teachers.⁸

Early records.—Records of the earlier educational excursions are brief and incomplete, and our information is for the most part limited to those taken under the stimulus of Rousseau's (1712-1778) theories. He suggested the idea and inspired men like Pestalozzi, Salzmann, Bender, Stoy, and Ziller to work out an excursion technique and use it as a part of the regular class instruction. Pestalozzi (1746-1827) tried out excursions in his Institute, but these trips in the vicinity of Yverdon, although very enjoyable to his pupils, were loosely organized and lacked the educational value of those taken by Salzmann.

The earliest excursions in Germany of which a definite report⁹ is obtainable are those made from Salzmann's school in Schnepfenthal between the years 1784 and 1802. Salzmann's accounts are voluminous, for he desired not only to preserve a chronological record of the trips but also to provide his students and their parents with "material for meditation" in order that they might love nature, observe keenly, and travel extensively. The excursions were made to places of personal interest to Salzmann rather than to those of educational value. One of his trips was taken to a certain town because Salzmann had relatives living there; another to a particular village because some of his friends had invited him there.

Salzmann's preparations for the excursions were elaborate. The pupils studied the provinces in which the excursion was to be taken, memorized their boundaries, studied the customs of the people who lived in them, the industries found there, and the products raised by the peasants on the farms. A careful inspection of each boy's clothes, shoes, and "underlinen" was made before the group started on the trip. One of the boys served as guide on the trip, another watched the

⁸ Alexander and Parker, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

⁹ C. I. Dodd, "The School Journey in Germany," *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, 1896-1897 1: 512-534, 1897.

baggage, and others were held responsible for different necessary matters. Bad roads, bad weather, rain, sun, and wind were considered assets, for these hardened the pupils physically and "strengthened their moral fiber." To trudge over practically impassable roads and trails, eat the simplest food, and sleep on straw was a part of the training. Dodd¹⁰ quotes Salzmann's description of conditions met with on the trip: "It became darker and darker until we could hardly go one step ahead; we were compelled to seek the way with a stick. We must stop to drag now this one, now that one out of the mud."

Not only was the preparation long and strenuous, and the journey fatiguing, but the daily itinerary was also exhausting. Although a day's excursion at the present time may include visits to two or three places, a certain day's trip taken by Salzmann included twelve places. The day began with early mass in a Catholic church, after which a tour was made of a cathedral under the direction of a priest. A Benedictine and a Carthusian Monastery were visited in order that a comparison might be made. After a trip to a nunnery, the group visited a school of art and listened to an explanation of the paintings. In the course of the day the Imperial Library, a fortress, an arsenal, an orphanage, and a museum were included in the itinerary. To conclude their program, the group visited a cell once occupied by Luther.

Salzmann's excursions may well be considered too strenuous for an adult, to say nothing of some of the six-year-old boys who made them. Is it any wonder that the children's parents complained of the severity of the trip? The capacity for physical endurance was taken as an index to a pupil's strength of character, as was also his ability to assume a detached viewpoint in the face of moral or emotional strain. And, just as most of the excursions with their physical hazards were directed mainly to character building, so were the detailed exposures of some of life's darker aspects intended to achieve similar results. On one trip to Jena, Salzmann took his class into a dissecting room to acquaint them with the horrors of disease and the development of the body.

¹⁰ Dodd, *op. cit.*, p. 514. Cited by permission of the Controller of H. M. Stationery Office.

Another interesting account,¹¹ that of a week's trip to the Harz Mountains in 1892, has been given by an American student, Van Liew, who was, at the time it was made, studying pedagogy in Jena. The purpose of the trip was to add to the students' knowledge of art and architecture, geology, geography, industry, science, and history. The plan was announced by the principal some weeks in advance so that adequate preparation, similar to that referred to in Salzmann's account, might be made. Although it is not necessary to give all the details of the trip, brief extracts from the report very well illustrate the complete equipment considered necessary, and also the hardships endured and the kind of training given.

(The equipment included) hair and clothes brushes, three shirts, three pair of socks, soap, towels, wash-rag, tallow for the chafed feet, shoe brush, and blacking, needles, thread, buttons, a light robe or shawl, sufficient handkerchiefs, a stout suit of clothes, one extra trousers and coat, slippers, notebook and pencil. Where possible, three were allowed to provide and share certain articles in common, thus lightening the burden of each. A last year's experience was recalled: the boy with the least reliable legs had forgotten the mandate of "no new, unbroken shoes," and suffered in consequence. But *Am Schaden wird man klug*. Again there is that equally imperative regulation, let all weak places in clothing and all buttons be made strong beforehand. . . .

Before 7 a.m. on Monday, the first day of August, 1892, teachers, students and pupils had assembled at the school, whence all were to depart together for the depot. Here our first morning's devotions, a song and prayer, were held . . .

We resumed the march; village after village was passed; it began to grow dark and we were extremely tired and hungry; we were misdirected and finally went far out of the way. The last hill found us pretty well exhausted and somewhat dispirited, for the march had really proved severe and trying. . . .

The leader for the second day awoke us at dawn and bade us make use of the cold water at the well; our breakfast consisted of coffee and two butterless rolls. . . .

Leaving the Rosstrappe, our march next led us over the summits of the bluffs and through long stretches of pine forests. Several hours' tramp was before us; boys never become tired more speedily than when oppressed by the burden of monotony. They began to lag and put on doleful faces, taxing their leader's utmost ingenuity to revive their spirits. Tired? Very.¹²

Although the trip lasted only a week a great deal was accomplished during that time. Places of historical interest, art galleries, mines,

¹¹ C. C. Van Liew, "A School Journey," *Educational Review*, 8: 7-24, 1894.

¹² Van Liew, *op. cit.*, pp. 8-9, 10, 13, 14, 16.

factories, and shops were visited, and a careful study was made of the geology of the Harz district. The trip proved so strenuous that during the last few days of it time had to be taken for rest. Out of such excursion experiences grew certain wisdom which helped to make following trips less exacting, and productive of less mental and physical fatigue.

Bender, in his school in Weinheim, humanized the excursions more than had his predecessors. Although interested in the character-building opportunities offered by the excursion, he planned them definitely in connection with the work done in class. But the preparation was still strenuous. According to Dodd, it included,

. . . a physical preparation, which took the form of a trial journey some weeks before the real journey. As the school journey was to be done entirely on foot, and it sometimes lasted for three weeks, it was necessary to make a careful selection of the boys; this choice was finally decided by a medical examination of the pupils just before the journey . . . (It also included) a mental preparation which consisted of a number of pleasant meetings in the garden under the lime trees or in the master's room, which took place regularly in order to discuss the interesting points of the journey. Maps were drawn, and geographical, historical, industrial, zoological and botanical interests discussed¹³

Stoy, director of the Pedagogical Seminary in Jena, experimented further in improving the excursion technique used by Salzmann and Bender. His excursions aimed not so much at physical training or character building as at increasing pupils' knowledge of the surrounding countryside. The near-by Thuringian Forest was thoroughly explored.

This district certainly offers many allurements for school rambles with its miles of pine forests, wooded hills, winding valleys, castles, and mountain heights, its rich historical associations connected with the Thuringen sagas, the Crusades and Luther, its literary associations, which Goethe and Schiller have left behind them, its geographical illustrations of mountain, river, valley, et cetera, and its rich opportunities for studying plant and animal life. Frequently the journeys extended beyond the Thuringian Forest into Bavaria, the Harz Mountains, the Rhine district, and even into Italy and the Tyrol.¹⁴

Stoy used excursions not only as a means of classroom instruction but to give instruction to the teachers who were in training in the Seminary. In the various trips the Gymnasium boys were accom-

¹³ Dodd, *op. cit.*, p. 516.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 517.

panied by a group of pedagogy students. After the boys were abed, the seminar students discussed with Stoy the events of the day, noting and evaluating techniques which were used. Not only did the prospective teachers thus have an opportunity to become acquainted with the possibilities of the excursion, but they were given instruction in developing a technique which spread throughout Germany as these young teachers secured positions. The influences of Stoy's excursions, however, extended far beyond the boundaries of Germany. After her student days at the Jena Seminary, Dodd returned to England and became a strong advocate of the excursion method in the Owens College, in Manchester. Van Liew returned from Jena to the United States, and through his writing in educational magazines spread the excursion gospel in America.

Other educational leaders and teachers have contributed directly to the development of the excursion. Their contribution can be only briefly referred to here, for in the main the excursions taken under their direction are similar to those already discussed. Ziller,¹⁵ of the University of Leipsic, in his paper, *Zur Theorie pädagogischer Reisen*, considered the excursion with reference to its social value in developing comradeship between the teacher and pupil, and also as a character-building agency and an intellectual exercise.

Herr Scholz, in spite of a poorly equipped school in the small town of Blankenhain in the pine forests near Weimar—the birthplace of the German constitution of 1919—determined to give his students the finest education possible.¹⁶ One of his notable excursions of which we have a record was a three-day trip in July, 1895, to Arnstadt, the Schwarzathal and Rudolstadt, in the picturesque Schwarza-Tal region of the Thüringerwald.

The theory of the excursion as taught by Dr. Hein in the Seminary at Jena was actually practiced in the demonstration school connected with it. In the demonstration school, a trip of a week was considered not only a part of the school program but the center of it. The excursion was the culminating activity which had been prepared for throughout the year. History or geography served as the core sub-

¹⁵ Ziller, *Zur Theorie pädagogischer Reisen*. Quoted in Dodd, *op. cit.*, pp. 517-518.

¹⁶ Scholz, *Die Schulreise als organisches Glied im Plane der Erziehungsschule*. The trip is described in Dodd, *op. cit.*, pp. 518-523.

ject, and other subjects were correlated with it. The detailed preparation immediately preceding the trip included a special class which met each day before and after school for two weeks in order that the class might be made thoroughly familiar with the purposes, plan, and opportunities of the trip. Each day of the trip, which has been described in detail by Dodd,¹⁷ began with the sunrise at 6:30 a.m. and ended with a hymn about 9 p.m. Every hour was completely filled with tramps, observations, and note-taking, and only a minimum amount of time was left for meals or recreation. The information gained on the trip provided sufficient material for discussion and for written reports to occupy the class for two months afterwards.

Between 1900 and the end of the World War little change took place in the use of educational excursions other than a gradual increase in their number and variety. With the establishment of the Republic in 1918, the Ministry of Education through ministerial decrees and suggestions definitely encouraged its use. The school excursion was adopted, together with visual aids, project teaching, and a shorter school program, as a means of enlivening study and of developing students' interests. The excursion lent itself well to the furtherance of the national policy of cultivating what is known as *Bodenständigkeit*, a word which designates a kind of local patriotism or attachment to one's birth-region—Bavaria, for instance. In pursuance of this purpose, the government has among other things encouraged peasant festivals, at which the peasants wear the local costumes, dance the old dances, sing the regional folk-songs, and keep alive the local customs and pride in handicrafts with a view to deepening the people's attachment to their native soil and counteracting the tendency of the agrarian population to migrate to industrial centers.

The excursion as an instructional method probably attained its greatest development during the Republic, and the techniques which are discussed in later pages were widely used at that time.

Very soon after Hitler came into power, he took occasion to express his interest in education; and on April 18, 1933, he directed that all the youth organizations be united as the Hitler Youth

¹⁷ Dodd, *op. cit.*, pp. 525-531.

Association. Although no particular encouragement has been given directly to excursions by the present government, they are still a definite part of the school programs. Trips are taken on Saturday mornings by members of the Hitler youth groups, but these are largely for physical exercise rather than for instruction. Excursions at the present time are specifically used to promote an understanding of German history and culture and to develop loyalty to the state.

Types of excursions.—The excursions made in Germany may be divided into three classes—those purely for recreation, those for physical development and exercise, and those for instruction. The recreation trips are similar to our school picnics, which are group trips to some chosen spot with no purpose other than that of allowing members opportunity to enjoy themselves as they please. There is little organization to such a trip except the “going together.” Many of the trips made by the younger pupils belong to this type.

Trips for physical exercise have become exceedingly common since the World War, when so many of the children were found to be below normal. Such trips were usually “hikes” to some pleasant spot in the country where the children would eat, rest, play games, rest, and then hike back again. On Saturday mornings many such groups set out for the day, especially from the large cities. The establishment of youth hostels has greatly increased the number of trips with a view to physical development, for the hostels are close enough together for students to tramp easily from one to another in a day.

The class instruction excursions are by far the most important type. These excursions are class trips made in connection with the study of some special topic that the class is studying. The walks to objects of local interest are known as “teaching walks.” Many such short excursions are made to factories, mines, stores, banks, or museums. Classes in geography make excursions to study earth formations and topography; classes in nature study and in vocational activities find trips to farms, aquaria, and zoological gardens of value. Paintings, buildings of architectural interest, engineering projects all serve to illustrate the culture of the German people, and are carefully brought to the pupils’ attention.

Excursions to increase loyalty to the Fatherland and to acquaint

pupils with German leaders and traditions, are considered especially valuable. Peck, in discussing this point, writes:

Germans revere and remember their great men, and so these school children make pilgrimages to the towns where they lived and worked; to Bonn, to see Beethoven's charming little house and learn of his life as the teacher explains the letters and mementos gathered in the house; to Weimar where their literary heroes Goethe and Schiller lived, to Wittenberg, Eisenach and the Wartburg, following the dramatic story of Martin Luther; or a musical pilgrimage to Bayreuth, where they may remember Richard Wagner and hear one of the operas in the famous *Festspielhaus*.¹⁸

Excursion groups may often be seen searching through church records to discover interesting events in the history of a town. The village church is often an available source of historical data through which the pupils may trace the part played by their forefathers in the development of the community and obtain a glimpse of the highlights in the town's growth. It is also interesting to note that visits to cemeteries to study the inscriptions on the tombstones and see the graves of great German leaders are not uncommon. Through such trips a student may be given a knowledge and appreciation of the personalities that have contributed to the building of the German nation.

It has been the class instruction type of excursion which has not only put new life into methods of teaching in Germany, but has also widened the scope of German education. Alexander and Parker state:

... it ("wandering") is doubly worth while from the educational and social standpoint because the trips are taken by class groups in charge of their own teachers. The shared experience in informal situations binds them all closer together into a true "organic social group." Both in plans for the expedition and in retrospective discussion of sights seen and information gained the class work is enriched and made meaningful. No better procedure or method than school excursions could be devised to fit the need of the new German schools today when they are seeking to educate children through self-activity, to unify the school curriculum around large centers of interest, to build their culture on native elements, to foster genuine social spirit and to make school days a rich part of life's experiences.¹⁹

The excursion technique.—The organization of the class instruction excursion is usually undertaken by the regular classroom

¹⁸ A. M. Peck, *Young Germany*, pp. 43-44. 1931.

¹⁹ T. Alexander and B. Parker, *The New Education in the German Republic*, p. 43. 1929.

teacher, but such trips may also be proposed and carried out by the teachers of special subjects. Since participation is compulsory, funds must be provided to meet any necessary costs of transportation. It follows that schools must for the most part choose for the excursions objectives that are within walking distance, but they are increasingly aiming to secure appropriations which will make the longer excursions practicable.

The frequency of the excursions in the school program depends upon local conditions and regulations, the interest of the teachers, and various other factors, and the number will range from trips made weekly in good weather to a mere three or four in a year. In Berlin, museum visits are required as a part of every elementary school program. Executive order of the central educational ministry has decreed that at least one day a month be set aside as a *Wandertag*, but not all schools as yet obey the regulation. More often, however, schools exceed the minimum requirement in this respect rather than fall short of it. Often the obligatory excursions are all made during the winter in order to leave the fine days of spring and summer available for the longer optional trips.

A considerable variety of practice is found in the manner of planning for excursions. It is usually the teacher who selects the points to be visited and plans the details of the trip, but suggestions are often made by pupils, and sometimes much of the preparation is made their responsibility. The length of time to prepare for a trip depends, of course, upon the duration and character of the proposed excursion and upon the amount of preparatory study needed to make it of most value. A trip of a single day may be planned in a class period, during which the pupils choose a place that they would like to visit and the things that they wish to see there. For a week's trip, however—to study the topography of some region, let us say—weeks may be advantageously devoted to planning and study. The geography and history of the region to be visited are studied; maps and time-tables are closely examined to plan the itinerary; accommodations at hostels are reserved; and a complete schedule for the trip is worked out. The pupils are entrusted with as much as possible of the making and carrying out of the plans.

It has been found preferable to have the explanations of the

interesting points at the places visited made by a teacher rather than by a professional guide. If the teacher can find opportunity to make the trip with a well-informed guide beforehand, and thus be in a position to single out the material of especial interest or value for his class, so much the better. Such opportunity has been provided in some cities by the establishment of museum instruction courses for teachers through which they may become familiar with exhibits.²⁰

During the trip notes are usually taken by all students, and these are later gathered together in a class notebook. Special topics are often assigned to individual pupils or to small groups, the reports on these to be presented to the class after the return home. Considerable freedom is allowed to the older pupils to follow out lines of individual interest, so that these trips may provide the chance for development of any special personal bent. The trips also provide recreation and the pleasure of good fellowship.

The longer trips are becoming more and more popular—so much so, in fact, that a ministerial suggestion has recently been promulgated requiring pupils to become familiar with their own community and vicinity before undertaking any excursions to distant parts of the country or to any foreign countries. The need of such a ruling is striking witness to the increased ease of travel made possible through the youth hostels, which are now to be found in ever-increasing numbers in many countries.

The tramping trip is a national habit, and children are early habituated to travelling for long distances afoot. The short distances between villages in many parts of the country make it possible to plan excursions with the knowledge that opportunity to replenish supplies or to obtain shelter is never very remote. Third-class railroad rates provide inexpensive transportation for longer excursions; and, as almost any spot within the German border lies within a twelve-hour ride, a land rich in variety of scenery and in occupational interest is readily accessible.

*The excursion in experimental German schools.*²¹—It is in the

²⁰ H. Freudenthal, "Museum-Volksbildung-Schule," *Veröffentlichungen der Akademie gemeinnütziger Wissenschaften zu Erfurt*, Heft 28, *Erziehungswissenschaft und Jugendkunde*.

²¹ The material on the progressive secondary schools is based upon informal notes made by an American professional observer in German schools.

progressive secondary schools—the *Versuchsschulen* and *Realgymnasien* that the excursion has been used most extensively. In these schools, the curriculum, planned by the administrative staff and the teachers, has been built up around certain broad topics as centers of interest. These units have been made the central theme of the year's work for a grade, and the various subjects of study, such as art, history, or geography, have their fields correlated with this theme. "The Middle Ages," for instance, was chosen as the year's subject for one of the classes (Class VIII, of pupils averaging 15-17 years of age) of the *Albrecht Dürer School* in Dresden. The purpose was expressed as "the study of the present in the light of the past for the purpose of enabling students to take a critical attitude toward the problems of the present." History was taken as the core subject, and much emphasis was laid on German tradition and the development of the people.

A week's trip to the medieval cities of the Rhine Valley was made the basis and goal of the year's work, and the whole consideration of the topic was built around the excursion. Before any trip at all was permitted, several weeks of preparation were given to the study necessary to make the trip worth while. This preparation consisted in reading widely in many books rather than in studying any single text, and of discussing different aspects of the subject. It was found that some of the questions which arose as the study progressed could be answered through short excursions in the city. Through these short excursions, the enthusiasm for the Rhine Valley trip was increased, and the historical and legendary lore, feudal castles and modern industries, were studied with eagerness. A trip such as that contemplated required extensive planning and preparation, of which as much as possible was delegated to the pupils. The class arranged most of the mechanical details of the trip, and selected many of the places to be visited.

Several teachers accompanied the class on the Rhine trip. The expenses of the journey were kept at a minimum by travelling third class and by spending the nights at the youth hostels. A prolonged stay en route was made in Nuremberg to study the art and architecture of the old town. The class studied the physical feature of the localities visited, sketched some of the castles and other landmarks

of scenic and historic interest, studying these in their relation to the history of the region, observed the dialects and characteristic customs of the different districts, visited various industrial establishments, and studied modern methods of agriculture on some of the "model" farms. Although all the pupils made each trip, not all had the same responsibilities for each. Small groups were entrusted with a detailed study of some one matter of interest in connection with each visit, and these groups made copious notes, drew maps, and collected pictures to illustrate their special assignments. All of this work provided material for further study after the class returned home.

The follow-up after the return to Dresden included general discussions of particular aspects of the trip, oral and written reports on special points by individual pupils, the preparation of an illustrated notebook record, the completion of maps showing the route followed and the places visited, and the making of posters illustrating customs or costumes or other characteristic sights of the journey. The climax was the writing of a play, to be given before the other classes of the school, which would naturally bring out the high spots of the journey and thus provide an admirable means of summing up the more interesting and important features of the expedition. In this manner the topic "The Middle Ages" was made in one school to contribute to the pupils' understanding and appreciation of their Fatherland. Similar excursions were undertaken by the *Lichtwarkschule* in Hamburg, the *Kaiser Wilhelm Gymnasium* in Berlin—in fact, by all the *Versuchsschulen* of Germany.

Developments allied with the excursion.—One significant and unexpected outcome of the excursion method has been the development of interest in the establishment of local museums. After the visits to the museums, the children are encouraged to help build up a small museum in their home towns. The result has been the establishment of a considerable number of regional, city, town, school, and home museums. These museums or "collections of the locality," include rocks, minerals, plants, animals, manufactured products, and exhibits of historical objects, the latter often being the contribution of pupils' parents in whose families they may have been treasured for generations.

Another interesting development linked with the excursion is the *Schullandheim*, a sort of country camp belonging to a school. These "school country homes" are often built by the pupils, and are maintained by the school which establishes them. Each class of about thirty pupils spends from four to six weeks in the *Schullandheim* each year. Two or three teachers accompany the class. Approximately three hours a day are given over to formal instruction, and the remainder of the time is spent in recreation, gardening, and craft work. In addition, the pupils do most of the work of the camp. The purpose of the *Schullandheim* is to provide opportunity for physical development, community living, and the cultivation of avocational interests.

An interesting glimpse of the practical working out of the excursion method is obtained through an account given by Alexander and Parker in *The New Education in the German Republic*:

Often a school principal explains to the visitor, "I am sorry, but three of our classes are away today. One is simply taking a short trip about our own town and will be back here tomorrow, but the others will not return for a week. The eighth class left yesterday for a ten-day trip down the Rhine and into the Black Forest. The fifth class is beginning its second week at a Country Home on an island in the Baltic."

Just then down the corridor comes a crowd bearing knapsacks and all the other regalia of seasoned hikers. Is another class escaping from the school without the principal's knowledge? He laughs at the suspicion. "No, they do not slip out. Long before the journey begins they are bursting to tell me when and where they are going and the farewells are usually festive. The group you see is from Cologne. They have stopped at Hamburg on their way back from Cuxhaven where they went to get a breath of sea air and to watch the trans-Atlantic liners sail. They have been our guests for two days. You know, most of them travel on limited means, so the parents of our pupils have opened their homes and took care of these young tourists. It has been great fun for children from the two cities to see something of each other. They have invited us to come down there to see whether we like the Rhine as well as our Elbe. Some class will surely go soon and accept the return of hospitality."

Step by step these German school children are led on until they have explored many corners of their land and are equally at home in the southern hills or on the northern heath.²²

The whole aim of the German excursion program, as summarized by the authors quoted above, is to promote the physical welfare of

²² Alexander and Parker, *op. cit.*, pp. 51-52.

the boys and girls, gradually to widen their knowledge of the Fatherland, and to inculcate devotion to it.

THE SCHOOL EXCURSION IN ENGLAND

The beginnings of the excursion.—The school excursion in England seems to have grown from the initiative of individual teachers. The first excursions were designed to provide social experiences for pupils in the elementary grades, but they have, in the course of time, developed into what the London Education Service has termed "an extramural system of education." The aims, as stated by the Service are at least twofold:

The immediate aim of the school journey is to illustrate school lessons in literature, history, civics or geography; to enable the children to do field work in nature study, map reading, drawing, and other practical out-of-doors subjects. But, undoubtedly, its ultimate achievements are greater than its immediate aims. It makes the parent an eager ally of the school in social and educational activities, and it teaches children those amenities of thought and conduct, both amongst themselves and amongst strangers, which spring from an experienced and disciplined mind²³

The use of the excursion is a tribute to its recognized contribution to education, although it has never been made obligatory in the school system. Whether class excursions are or are not made depends upon the local school program and on the attitude of the teacher, but all types of schools make use of the excursion—the regular elementary and secondary schools, central day schools, continuation and trade schools, reformatories, and special schools for the mentally defective.

One of the earliest recorded excursions, made in 1877, grew from a casual remark of a teacher in Westminster, J. H. Cowham to a class in geology, to the effect that it would be a great advantage to be able to go to Switzerland to study a real glacier.²⁴ The suggestion was eagerly taken up and grew into a definite plan. The boys determined to save a shilling a week toward the cost of the trip. During the year the excursion was planned in detail, maps and diagrams were made, and the following summer about sixty pupils set out with their teacher for the Swiss Alps to see and study a "live" glacier.

²³ London County Council, *The London Education Service*, pp. 48-49 1927.

²⁴ J. C. Cowham, *The School Journey*, pp. 9-79. 1900.

An account exists of a similar excursion to Malvern, made in 1896 under the guidance of a young London teacher, one G. G. Lewis. About twenty students went on this trip, to study geology and to collect fossils. Mention is also found of an excursion into Wales, into the mining district, by a group of Liverpool pupils.

The growing recognition of the value of such excursions led, in 1911, to a meeting of teachers under the leadership of Dr. Kimmins. The outcome of the meeting was the formation of a national association to encourage the use of excursions. This organization, known as the "School Journey Association," has a membership consisting exclusively of teachers. It has undertaken to secure financial backing for the excursions, to obtain suitable insurance for the schools or individuals responsible for their management, and to provide helpful information about itineraries, railway fares, and inexpensive lodgings. Its motto, "Travel is the slayer of prejudice," states concisely one very important value of the excursion in the minds of its founders.

From the time of the first London school journey in 1896 up to the year 1935, the School Journey Association grew so rapidly that in the latter year it had under its administration 250 youth hostels similar to the German *Jugendherbergen* throughout England and Wales, located usually not more than from ten to twenty miles apart. Their proximity to one another makes it possible for school groups to cover sections of considerable extent afoot.

The more common practice of the school journey group is to take one of the hostels as a center and make excursions out from it to different points, but other groups plan their journeys in such a manner as to make it possible for them to cover the areas in which they are interested by staying for a night at each of the hostels en route.²⁵

In 1921 the School Journey Association became a member of the federated educational associations, which hold annual conferences at University College, London. Reports made at the annual meeting of the School Journey Association are found in the several yearbooks of the Conference of Educational Associations.²⁶

²⁵ S. F. Trustream, "School Journeys and Youth Hostels at Home and Abroad," *Report of the Twenty-third Annual Conference of Educational Associations*, pp. 84-85. 1935.

²⁶ For detailed accounts of the activities and school journeys reported at the annual

Closely allied to the School Journey Association is the English Secondary School Travel Trust.²⁷ The Trust is a voluntary non-profit organization which makes foreign travel possible for schools. It has arranged twelve cruises during the past six years, through which 15,000 boys and adults have been enabled to visit foreign countries. During the summer of 1937, 800 boys and 400 teachers and relatives spent two weeks visiting Baltic ports and countries.

The Trust is in the hands of five headmasters who serve as controlling trustees. They make all arrangements for the cruises, and are responsible for the program on shipboard and for sight-seeing trips from ports of call. The navigation is, naturally, in the hands of the crew of the chartered boats.

The boys are divided into small groups and are responsible to the teacher who accompanies the group. A full program, including navigation, sea lore, ship routine, and the geography and history related to the trip, is offered to the boys. With background thus provided they are better prepared to understand the countries which are visited. The cruises are becoming each year more popular, partly because of their low rates and partly because of their educational value.

The Trust originated in 1932, when a group of schoolmasters chartered an old flagship, the "Neuralia," and made two cruises to the Baltic for boys ranging in age from 8 to 14. Since those first trips, a larger ship, the "Dilwara," has been chartered, and the age-limit for the boys has been extended to enable pupils from a larger number of high schools to take advantage of the cruises. The motto of the Trust is, appropriately, "The world belongs to him who has seen it."

The success of the cruises made under the auspices of the Travel Trust led the School Journey Association to experiment with a similar plan.²⁸ The first cruise sponsored by the Association was made in 1935 on the S.S. "Nevasa," which set sail for a twelve-day Baltic cruise on August 12. The passengers numbered 833 boys and some

conferences of the School Journey Association, see the Reports of the Annual Conferences of Educational Associations, 9: 306-314; 10: 355-364; 11: 319-321; 12: 309-314, 13: 321-328, 14: 281-289; 15: 98-104; 16: 329-331, 17: 181-185; 18: 171-182; 19: 233-243; 21: 346-349; 22: 33-37, 23: 83-88 and 24: 129-137.

²⁷ "Schoolboys' Trip to the Baltic." *The Times*, London, *Educational Supplement*, 1165: 304, August 28, 1937. Quoted in *School and Society*, 46: 427, 1937.

²⁸ F. W. Fuest, "The Educational Value of the Scholars' Cruise," *Report of the Twenty-Third Annual Conference of Educational Associations*, pp. 86-88. 1935

300 adults.²⁹ The organization of the tour was quite similar to that of the Travel Trust cruises. Each of the boys was provided with a handbook of instructions and information, the latter including interesting historical and geographical notes. The program on board comprised the usual shipboard sports and entertainments. The first port of call was Oslo, where the ship remained for three days. During this time passengers—who made the ship their headquarters throughout the trip—had ample opportunity for sight-seeing excursions in the city and its vicinity. Two days were similarly spent in Copenhagen. The return to England was made through the Kiel Canal.

Types of excursions.—The excursions made by English students may be grouped under four heads. The first, the usual kind in the elementary schools, is generally a visit to municipal buildings, large stores, and other places of local interest or beauty. This may be called the "junior school journey." Its object is to provide information and to give the children opportunity for social contact. The second type, known as the "walking journey," is like the recreational or physical exercise excursion of Germany, and includes walks about the town or to the park for games and recreation. These two kinds of shorter trips, which must be approved by the School Board Inspector and may be taken during school hours, are known as "educational visits"; but when they are of longer duration—and they often last for a week or a fortnight—and require overnight accommodations, they are called "school journeys." The type of excursion recommended for the secondary schools is the "homeland journey," a tour of England, of greater or less extent, to study the geography, history, and social life of the people. The fourth type, the crowning journey, open to students of university age, is the excursion to continental Europe or to British colonies. It is apparent that these four types of excursion introduce pupils systematically to town, shire, country, and empire. To place all of these within the reach of every student is one of the definite aims of the School Journey Association.

The excursion technique.—It is rather difficult to make any generalizations about the excursion as a method of instruction in Eng-

²⁹ F. J. Fuest, "The 'Nevesa' Cruise, 1935,—and After," *Conference of Educational Associations, Twenty-Fourth Report*, pp. 137-140, 1936.

land because its handling is left to individual initiative and therefore presents many local variations. It is usually planned by the teacher and class to bring further light upon a subject already considered, or to aid in gathering more information about a problem yet to be solved. The pupils are given some degree of freedom in choosing the itinerary, and are allowed to make the railroad and hostel reservations; the teacher acts as supervisor, guide, and hostess of the group. If an excursion is to be made during school hours, the teacher obtains the necessary authorization from the Board Inspector. It is required that notes be taken during the excursion, and that a complete written record of it be made upon return.

An inquiry addressed to the London Board of Education brought the following detail regarding several points of interest:

In London, with its historic buildings, museums, art galleries, zoological and botanical gardens, works and places of business, rich opportunities are offered for educational visits. The local education authority has laid down that such visits shall be an integral part of the school course; that they shall be thoroughly educational and in every case suitable for the particular class of children concerned; that they shall be preceded by preparatory lessons and followed by recapitulatory exercises. The London County Council also requires that reasonable precautions shall be taken for the children's safety, not more than twenty, as a rule, being entrusted to the care of one teacher, and that the pupils taking part in any visit for which expense is incurred by the Council must have reached the age of 11 years. There are also regulations concerning travelling expenses and admission fees, of which the most important are: (1) no expenses may be incurred by the teachers or pupils, and (2) that not more than four visits (including one visit to Shakespearean performance) involving expenditure to the Council shall be made by any one pupil in each educational year.³⁰

It is apparent from this communication that the London County Council has placed outlay for school excursions in the category with other school expenditures, and that it stands ready to meet the cost of four approved excursions in each school year for every child over eleven years of age. Incidental expenses over and above those paid by the County Council are met through contributions from school funds and from parents by private donations. The longer excursion, requiring as it does, the united planning of the school staff, parents, and pupils becomes a veritable community enterprise. Participation

³⁰ Official Communication from the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports, Board of Education, Whitehall, London, England.

in such a cooperative undertaking is recognized as in itself of real educational value, and constitutes a further reason for encouragement of the excursion method. The values sought through it are definitely in accord with British educational policy.

Among organizations that encourage excursions there is, for one, the Children's Country Holiday Association, which arranges nights or week-ends for children in the country. The purpose of these trips is primarily to improve health, and they correspond to the work of the health camps in Germany. The organizations of the Boy Scouts and the Girl Guides also offer educational opportunities and opportunity for physical exercise.

Comparison of the German and English excursions.—The German and English excursions differ in purpose, organization, and frequency. In Germany the purpose of the excursion is essentially to develop an appreciation of the German people and culture, and so to make each child a "true German," unfailingly loyal to the State. The English regard the excursion as primarily a social activity, an "educational visit," an opportunity for developing "those fine characteristics of a gentleman," rather than as a definitely organized trip with an instructional aim. This viewpoint is in accord with the British sense that culture is acquired fundamentally through friendly contacts, wide experience, and knowledge. In Germany the excursion is a basic method of instruction, the center of a topic; in England the excursion is for the most part employed to supplement the regular work of the class. The English excursion lacks the detailed and regimented character of the German plan, is more of the nature of a social visit to an educationally interesting place.

In England and Germany the increase in the use of the excursions has been furthered by national organizations, by the School Journey Association in England, and by the Youth Hostel Association in Germany. The English Association was formed after the increase in the number of excursions undertaken had created a need for such an organization, and it was organized with the direct aim of encouraging for cultural ends both local and extended journeys. The Youth Hostel Association, on the other hand, is not primarily interested in the excursion with an educational objective. It was formed as a recreational organization prior to any extensive use of the educa-

tional excursion and merely cooperates with the schools by permitting the use of its accommodations when desired.

The use of the excursion has been approved and encouraged by the ministries of education in both England and Germany, but with significant differences in method. In Germany the encouragement has been given by ministerial decrees and suggestions which have made the excursion in certain respects practically compulsory. *Wandertage* have been definitely recommended and required as a part of the school program. Such is not the case in England, where, except for the coordination achieved through the national organization, the excursion is left to local initiative. Some counties, and especially the large cities, use it extensively; in other districts it is almost unknown.

THE EXCURSION IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES AND IN JAPAN

Little information is available regarding the use of the excursion except in England and Germany. It may be that in some countries it is more frequently used than is evident from the literature available. In any case, some few facts have been gleaned which illustrate its character in several countries, and the ends to which it has been directed.

Recent educational reform in *Austria* has emphasized the use of the excursion as a direct method of teaching through which children may learn from observation.³¹ Probably no other European country, with the exception of Germany, has emphasized its value more strongly. Municipal lodging houses for visiting school children have been established in larger cities. The whole Austrian excursion program follows very closely the German plan.

City children are taken to the country for lessons in geography and geology conducted on a mountain side or the bank of a rushing stream in the actual presence of the phenomena about which they are studying. Country children are taken to the cities to visit public buildings, obtain a glimpse of the industrial activities so foreign to the rural experiences of their own lives, and perhaps even see the inside of some great factory, and sometimes to attend a theatrical or operatic performance.

³¹ R. W. Hengarten, "Municipal Lodging House for Visiting School Children," *School Life*, 12: 19, 1926 (United States Council at Vienna, Austria Official report of the Secretary of State).

The visits to cities have been made practicable through the accommodations provided for the purpose at the municipal lodgings, which, in addition to sleeping rooms, also provide meals at very low cost. Such lodgings are found in Salzburg, Vordernberg, Puchberg, Gruenbach, Linz, and, of course, in Vienna. The Vienna lodging, with ten dormitories and 180 beds, showers, kitchen, dining room, and infirmary, is thoroughly modern in every respect in its equipment.

Very low railroad rates for school children encourage the longer excursions, especially trips to the Swiss Alps, and to German industrial centers as well as regions of natural beauty.

Very little information is available regarding the extent to which the excursion method is used in *France*. It is rarely mentioned in the school literature and there is no national effort to further its use. The school excursions that are made are organized by individual schools or teachers, and are usually an extra-curricular activity. The Ministry of National Education, in replying to a recent inquiry made by the writer,⁸² stated that the Ministry recommends excursions—visits to museums and factories, and field trips—in connection with the teaching of geography, history of art, natural science, and other subjects, but that no statistics are available to indicate the extent of its use because of the freedom which is given to teachers in France to plan their work according to their own ideas. In two decrees of September 2, 1925 and August 27, 1927, the Ministry has strongly urged the use of the excursion. It sanctions local trips and is willing to grant permission for two prolonged journeys in the course of a school year.

Excursions in *Italy* are taken as extra-curricular activities rather than as a method of class instruction. Most trips are taken through the National Balilla Institute, which is organized to promote sports, physical training, vocational training, and, above all else, national patriotism.⁸³ This Institute includes the *Balilla*, for boys between 8 and 14 years of age, the *Avanguardista*, for boys from 14 to 18; and the *Piccole* and *Giovane Italiane* for girls. The emphasis on physical exercise, hikes, country camps, has brought about the de-

⁸² Personal communication from office of Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale.

⁸³ H. R. Marraro, *The New Education in Italy*, pp. 183-190. 1936.

velopment of a national program similar in purpose to the German program since the World War. Excursions, however, are infrequent in comparison with those in Germany. Some trips are taken in connection with the physical education program and are made a means of citizenship training. The Italian government uses the *Balilla* and *Piccole* to induct boys and girls "into the ways of a loyal Fascist." Through a rigid school program which utilizes the school excursion incidentally to its prescribed schedule, Italian youth are indoctrinated with the ideas of the ancient Roman tradition, the proud heritage and destiny of the Italian people, and the need of unquestioning loyalty to the Fascist state.

In *Russia*, the Young Communist Party is the center of the youth movement. Through it excursions to some of the great factories are organized to acquaint the young men and women with the industrial program of Russia, and journeys are arranged to visit and study the large cooperative farms.⁸⁴ The historical museums are also popular objectives for excursions, in particular the Historical Museum in Moscow.

The government has established approximately eighty tourist stations, which resemble in some ways the hostels of Germany. These stations provide accommodations for students and other tourists en route to visit the experimental enterprises of the Soviet government. Comparatively few long trips are made by school children, and the excursion is not used extensively by the schools.

Some outstanding features of the Russian educational program under the present government were illustrated in an interesting exhibit at the Museum of Natural History in New York City, in 1935. Among the gay colored posters was one showing a group of young Russians visiting a textile factory in Moscow. Another showed a group enjoying the pleasures of outdoor life in one of the country camps. The inscriptions are quoted from two of the posters:

Long distance tours and shorter excursions are arranged to familiarize the children with the achievements of socialist construction, to concretize the learning they have obtained at school, and to improve their health and spirit.

To render methodical help to schools, children's homes, and pioneer detach-

⁸⁴ L. Wilson, *New Schools of New Russia*, pp. 61-65. 1928

ments in the regions and republics of the USSR, children's excursion tourist stations are organized³⁵

The school excursion has made its way in Russia to the extent of winning recognition as an educational method in teacher-training institutions. Its importance is stressed in a recent translation of a volume on pedagogy, compiled from a series of lectures delivered by Pinkevitch at the Second Moscow University.³⁶ The excursion is discussed as a "passive type" and as a "genuine type" of education. In the passive type, children listen passively to a lecture on the things which they see, and, in the genuine type, the pupils actually observe and study objects in their natural setting. Excursions are classified as sociological, scientific, and technical, according to the purpose served by the trip; and as illustrative, heuristic, and experimental, according to the amount and kind of activity carried on by the pupils. Illustrations of the different types are given, and the excursion procedures of planning, conducting, and retrospective study are suggested. The discussion in this volume follows the general lines of that in other European countries or in the United States. The author cites Raykov's "Excursion Rules," which are really suggestions to teachers. Raykov cautions them to "remember that the excursion is not an outing but a prescribed part of the curriculum," and advises them to make a careful study of the place to be visited, outlining the general topic, preparing a definite plan, and avoiding digression from it in consequence of incidental question. He suggests that teachers should avoid giving information which pupils can obtain from their own observation, and avoid also very lengthy and minutely detailed explanations. The need for the teacher to learn how to show objects effectively, and to teach the pupils to observe them properly is emphasized—"everybody must see everything."

In *Poland* sanction has been given to the excursion by the Ministry of Education. In 1926 a part of the Government grant for schools was set aside for the building of youth hostels, and in the same year a Commission was established by the Ministry of Education, with the primary purpose of developing a deeper sense of

³⁵ Exhibit of Russian educational achievements, Museum of Natural History, New York City, 1935.

³⁶ A. P. Pinkevitch, *The New Education in the Soviet Republic*, pp. 264-267. 1929.

civic responsibility, which it was believed could be produced by giving children a more intimate and extensive acquaintance with their country. The function of the Commission was stated to be:

To define guiding principles for the organizing of educational tours for young persons, to give instructions and issue regulations for school walks and excursions, to submit suggestions for the provision of night accommodations in schools and for the use of moneys collected from the children, for excursions.⁸⁷

As a consequence of the encouragement of the Commission and of the Ministry, school groups began to make excursions, at first brief and limited in range, but gradually increasing in length and radius. Classrooms in some buildings were equipped during vacation periods with beds and blankets so that they might be used as dormitories. Subsidies were granted by the Ministry of Education to certain inns, and to some individual home owners who could provide suitable accommodation, for the purpose of making travel inexpensive, and thereby encouraging pupils to undertake it. Accommodations once known to be available, schools were quick to avail themselves of the facilities to make longer excursions. In 1927, for instance, the dormitories were used by 2,172 children, and in the following year by 16,090.

In response to the needs created by the wider adoption of the idea and the increasing tendency to make journeys of greater length, the government built, one after another, fourteen hostels, with separate dormitories for boys and girls, individual lockers, wash rooms and shower rooms, kitchens and dining rooms, recreation rooms, and quarters for "House Parents."⁸⁸

Since the government interested itself in excursions essentially in connection with the teaching of civics, emphasis was from the beginning placed quite as much upon the human response and activities in the situations observed as upon the bare facts of topography, geography, or other science. Pupils are prepared for the journeys by lectures on the localities to be visited, by reading, and by studying and making maps. They are also required to do most

⁸⁷ *Youth Hostel Handbook*, p. 84, 1936.

⁸⁸ A. Janowski, "School Excursions in Poland," taken from the *Official Handbook of Dormitories*, Ministry of Education, Warsaw, Poland, reported in *New Era*, 11. 24-25, 1930.

of the planning, including the making of provision for proper equipment and first aid, and to keep a detailed record of the costs of the trip, which must be filed in the school office on return. They are allowed to prepare the reports on their observations in line with their individual interests, so it happened that a pupil with a musical bent noted the songs which she had heard the peasants singing, a child able to draw illustrated her report with sketches, a pupil interested in design painted the patterns of the embroidery which she had seen on the peasant costumes. During their journeys pupils often collect valuable material for their school museums. They often attempt to repay in some measure the hospitality of the towns which they visit by singing the songs of their native region or telling of interesting local customs.

An interesting report on the Polish use of the hostels in teaching civics was given at the International Conference of Youth Hostel Associations, meeting in Krakow in 1935. The delegates were given opportunity to visit an exhibit of reports on journeys which pupils had prepared, and were much struck by the extraordinarily careful observation and the degree of understanding of which they gave evidence.

Other European countries use the excursion to some extent. In *Belgium, Holland*, and the *Scandinavian countries*, excursions have been encouraged. Especially is this true in Sweden, where botanical field trips are taken by the secondary schools. In 1896 a yearly grant to the Swedish Tourists Association made longer trips possible. In *Finland* also a school travel bureau supplies information about trips, rates, and accommodations in various places so that long trips may be encouraged. Nature study is one of the most frequent objects of the trips.

In *Bulgaria*, excursions are encouraged by the Ministry of Education, especially for the elementary schools. In the higher schools, the Progymnasias and the Gymnasias, longer trips of a week or more are usual. Trips for the study of geography and history are most often mentioned. In *Czechoslovakia*, excursions are considered so important that the Ministry of Education has required that each student spend at least forty nights in the Youth Hostels before graduation from high school.

In *Japan*—in keeping with the oriental reverence for antiquity and tradition—the excursion is used to create an interest in the literature and religion of “Old Japan.” All Japanese school children go on excursions particularly during the last two years of the elementary school, and during the high school years. Especially in the early summer and in the late fall great numbers of children may be seen in the museums and art galleries, or visiting the old temples and other places important in the history and tradition of the country. The groups often contain as many as two or three hundred pupils, with only two or three teachers in charge of them. Occasionally both boys and girls are to be found in the same group, but usually the groups are separate.

One of the favorite objectives for excursion groups is the ancient capital town of Nara, not far from Osaka.⁸⁰ The quaint town, with its beautiful temples and large parks, and its picturesque setting in a countryside almost untouched by modern civilization, draws many groups of visitors, most of all perhaps during the month of October, when the turning foliage of the maples is at the height of its flaming glory of gold and scarlet. The groups of children may be seen wandering through the parks, listening courteously to some guide in museum or temple as he explains the religious symbolism and the significance of the historic or art treasures, kneeling reverently before the image of the god and offering their prayers aloud before leaving the temple, and playing or lunching in the grounds especially set apart for school children’s use.

If an excursion group comes from a distance—and Japanese children often make very long school journeys—they will find lodging in some simple inn, where, after a refreshing bath and the evening meal of rice, they will spend part of the evening in writing up, under the direction of the teacher, the notes made during the day. After a long night’s rest, they will be ready to begin afresh their round of visiting, sketching, or whatever has been planned.

The Japanese school authorities recognize the importance of providing first-hand experiences in order that boys and girls may learn to appreciate and love their country to the utmost. The realization

⁸⁰ “School Journeys in Japan,” *The Times*, London, *Educational Supplement*, 1058: 277, August 10, 1935. Quoted in *School and Society*, 42: 300-301, 1935.

of the opportunities offered by the excursion to revive national traditions and realize national aims may be expected to result in its far more widely extended use.

INTERNATIONAL EXCURSIONS

There are many allied groups and organizations which contribute to the development and use of the excursion in foreign countries. Already the various youth movements have been briefly mentioned and their connection with the excursion noted. Hostels are found in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Denmark, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Holland, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Scotland, Switzerland and Wales. Through these it is possible to travel by bicycle or afoot from one part of Europe to another, finding hostels within reasonable distances. Camps for physical and military training are found especially in European countries under the rule of dictators. Boy and Girl Scout organizations, clubs, political organizations, vacation homes, and numerous other local groups promote the use of trips and indirectly influence their use in the school.

The League of Nations has recently established an international division for the promotion of excursions between countries. Already school groups from other countries are found in Germany and England. These groups are usually formed through local initiative, yet they are encouraged by national organizations which sponsor excursion groups. Hostels are frequently used by students from other countries, and statistics show an increasing number of student groups travelling in foreign countries for educational purposes. Through international encouragement, excursions may become one of the means of establishing world understanding and peace. In this connection, it is interesting to read the report given by a group of Polish students after returning from an excursion in Germany:

We have seen beautiful scenery, glaciers, natural curiosities, and clean cities; we have visited industries, agricultural regions, and have had practical experiences in geography; we have learned much from contact with people. It is a great advantage to participate in their home life, to see their dress, their customs, manner of living; feeling toward their country, war, taxes, etc.; we have learned how to travel and how to depend upon ourselves.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ C. F. Hoban, "School Journeys in Germany," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 79: 110, 1930.

SUMMARY

Germany and England have been leaders in the use of the educational excursion. Its acceptance as a method of instruction has both encouraged and been encouraged by the hostel movements, which have made suitable, inexpensive accommodations available for journeys of some duration.

Several of the progressive schools, in Germany especially, have experimented successfully with prolonged excursions about which months of school work have been centered.

In both countries the educational ministries have looked with favor upon the excursion procedure, and in England have recommended it, and in Germany have required it, in the schools.

The method is employed more or less extensively in other European countries—in Austria, France, Italy, Russia, Poland—and in Japan. In most of the countries which have been studied, the excursion is handled so as to fit into the national educational pattern and contribute to the fulfilment of the national aim.

The influence of the excursion in liberalizing the traditional school curriculum has been profound, and its potential influence on the furtherance of international understanding and world peace is recognized. With the continuance of the excursion programs, and the widening of their scope, the countries of Europe may in time find themselves united through a chain of hostels running from the British Isles to the Ural Mountains and from the far northlands to the Mediterranean Sea.

Chapter III

RECENT DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT USE OF THE EXCURSION METHOD IN THE UNITED STATES

FROM the fact that innovations in teaching methods have for the most part been undertaken in the elementary schools, it may be inferred that the earliest school excursions probably originated in the desire of some enthusiastic teachers to introduce their small charges to a wider world than that bounded by the four walls of the classroom. Tramps in the woods after school hours or on Saturdays, with or without definite purpose of acquiring first-hand acquaintance with birds and flowers, or perhaps ventures farther afield, to visit farms or stores, may well have been the character of the school excursion in its inception. Calling upon our imaginations to give us a glimpse of some such visit, and keeping in mind the general educational philosophy of our Colonial period, we may not be far wrong in picturing a group of children marching silently, two by two, to some chosen place at which objects of interest were called to their attention by the teacher. They probably took notes on the teacher's talk. The return was also, in all likelihood, made in orderly, semi-military fashion. An excursion to a park, or a picnic, would necessarily have been of less formal character, and might have allowed opportunity for games and for a picnic luncheon; but the pedagogic attitude of the time would have prevented the granting of much individual freedom even on occasions like these. By no stretch of imagination, however, can we persuade ourselves that we should ever have encountered in this country any approximation to the very demanding and intensive preparation, or to the physically taxing program, that characterized the early excursions in Germany, as seen, for instance in such accounts as those given by Salzmann, Bender, or Hein, which have been quoted at length in Chapter II.

German influence.—The adoption of the excursion idea in this country was hastened through the influence of teachers who received

their training in the German universities. In 1892, one of these young Americans, Van Liew by name, had the opportunity to spend a week in the Harz Mountains with a sixth grade class from the practice school of the Pedagogical Seminary of the University of Jena. The enthusiasm aroused by his observations of the vitalizing effects of this method of teaching led Van Liew, on his return to this country, to publish some of the details of his experiences with the hope of inducing teachers here to make wider use of the excursion.¹ In the paper referred to, he laments that the school excursion, "first conceived by that revolutionary spirit Rousseau, . . . and first fruitfully and extensively applied by Salzmann, in his institution at Schnepfenthal, has, despite the recognition of its value by educators and educational reformers for more than a century, been used but rarely as an essential and organic factor in education." Although recognizing that brief excursions to galleries and museums were winning favor in this country "as efficient counteractives against the dangers of chronic verbalism," he nevertheless finds them "too often undertaken without due regard to the systematic relations they should bear to the school work as a whole, or to the carefully selected and well-defined end which they should have in view." After giving a detailed account of the particular school journey responsible for his own enthusiastic convictions of its value, and considering some of the precious opportunities available here for similar stimulating journeys, he proceeds to raise and to answer certain objections to its use in this country, which might be made:

In America, it is true, we have to contend with factors that would be reduced to a minimum almost anywhere in Europe. For example, there are our broad expanses of country offering but little diversity and few natural attractions other than can be seen at home; with few exceptions, points of historical and artistic interest are rare and far apart; the expense would consequently prove greater in America than elsewhere, if each day were made to furnish its full contribution of interesting and diverse experiences. These, perhaps, embody the chief difficulties, not one, however, is a universally valid objection; not one but can be more or less completely surmounted. Many of our localities offer greater riches in some lines than Europe. We still have regions, close to very centers of habitation and civilization, that would yield inexhaustible sources of observation in physical geography and the natural sciences. Observations made under such circumstances are educative in a

¹ C. C. Van Liew, "A School Journey," *Educational Review*, 8. 7-24, 1894.

sense that no other scientific instruction can be. Again we are very often apt to underestimate the value of our more immediate surroundings in nature; one does not need to go far to find types of what is true the world over. Structures of real architectural merit and art exhibits are rapidly increasing. Almost every country of the older States has its local traditions, legends, and historical events, which, despite their local stamp, can be made to stimulate a historical interest. The school journey could be utilized most easily, perhaps, by private, technical, and manual training schools, either because they can very often appeal more successfully to parents for funds or because the nature of their work calls for just such undertakings. I do not doubt, however, that many parents of public school children would gladly furnish the means for such a journey of moderate pretensions if once assured of its benefits and of competent management. Finally, if economy and simplicity are strictly observed, as they should be, the expense of such an undertaking, even including railroad fares, is surprisingly small.²

European educational theory has, of course, made itself felt in the United States through its influence upon the thought of American philosophers. C. F. Hoban, writing in *School Life*, reminds us that both Pestalozzi and Rousseau utilized the excursions in their teaching, and comments:

Their influence is reflected in the early educational development of Pennsylvania. William Penn was an exponent of visual instruction. He was a believer in the value of observation and in learning to do by doing. Franklin also was a visual educationist. He was the first American cartoonist and advocated journeys to neighboring plantations, that "the methods of farmers might be observed and reasoned upon." This type of instruction was common in the early days.³

Increase in literature as index to increase in use.—Up to the end of the last century, mention of the excursion in educational writings in this country apart from the references of Van Liew and a few others, was scanty in the extreme. But, inasmuch as its increased use would inevitably be revealed in increasingly frequent references in the literature, it has seemed as if the mere number of articles appearing in successive equal periods of time might give some clew to the rapidity of its acceptance. The first two decades of this century contribute little, but search through the *Educational Index*, the *Readers Guide*, special bibliographies, and miscellaneous references, has brought to light some sixty-eight articles that appeared from the

² *Ibid.*, pp. 23-24.

³ C. F. Hoban, "The School Journey as a Visual Aid," *School Life*, 13: 32, 1927.

year 1920 to 1935. Their distribution for consecutive five-year intervals is presented in Table 2 for the sake of easy comparison.

TABLE 2
CHRONOLOGICAL DISTRIBUTION OF SIXTY-EIGHT ARTICLES
PUBLISHED BETWEEN 1920 AND 1935

Year	Articles Published	
	Number	Per Cent
1920-1924	4	5.9
1925-1929	19	27.9
1930-1934	45	66.2

A glance at the figures is sufficient to show the rapid multiplication of references. The first half of the second decade shows double the number listed for the whole of the previous decade, and, compared with the 1920-1924 interval, ten times the number—a thousand per cent increase! Even though the next five-year interval, 1935-1939, is as yet incomplete, a definite increase over preceding periods is found in the number of articles published. The actual number of articles published was greater than indicated in the table, for the figures show only the articles available, but it seems justifiable to infer from these a definite and substantial increase of interest in the excursion method.

City, state, and national recognition.—One of the first city school systems to give official recognition to the excursion as a method of instruction was that of Philadelphia. In the course of a survey of Philadelphia schools, in 1921, a committee undertook to evaluate some fifty excursions which had been made in connection with extra-curricular programs. The strikingly satisfactory results of these excursions led the committee to recommend their incorporation into the regular class program, in order that they might be more effectively organized, and planned so as to contribute directly to the school subjects.

The four specific recommendations made by the committee became one of the earliest of the "guides" to excursion planning, and did much to further the use of the method. The recommendations

which the committee considered essential to a successful excursion are:

- 1 That excursions be carefully planned and closely connected with regular class work.
2. That teachers stimulate and supervise the activity of the pupils in working out excursions but not rob the pupils of educational opportunities by doing the work for them.
3. That teachers check up the results of excursions carefully but at the same time not destroy the spontaneous fun that is so real a part of the excursion.
- 4 That an approved excursion which for good reasons cannot be scheduled for after-school hours be carried out on school time, when the school program permits⁴

Endorsement of the excursion method by a state education department arose through the enthusiasm of a Pennsylvania official, C. F. Hoban, Director of State Museum and Visual Education. To Mr. Hoban the excursion represents essentially an important method of visual education, in which field Pennsylvania, under his able guidance, has done noteworthy pioneer work. In an address before the National Academy of Visual Instruction, meeting at Chapel Hill, North Carolina, in 1927, he stressed some of the excursion values.

Of all types of visual aids the school journey is one of the most important and valuable. The school journey, field trip or school excursion, as it is variously termed, brings the children into direct contact with objects of knowledge and hence gives opportunity for initial correct concepts. The school journey must be regarded as a major visual aid because it (1) effects an economy in time in teaching, (2) enriches and vitalizes instruction, (3) develops, from the beginning, correct concepts.⁵

The monograph on "Visual Education and the School Journey,"⁶ prepared by a committee of representatives from each of the normal schools and state teachers colleges, working under Mr. Hoban's direction, sets forth in detail the values to be sought through the school excursion and the principles underlying the method, and contains helpful illustrative accounts of journeys made. It is perhaps the most practically helpful discussion of the excursion which has been made up to the present time. Mr. Hoban himself is responsible for more articles on different aspects of the excursion

⁴ Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Philadelphia*, Book IV, pp. 157-158. 1922.

⁵ Hoban, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

⁶ C. F. Hoban, "Visual Education and the School Journey," *Educational Monographs*, 1; 4-95, 1930.

than any other single writer, as a glance at the Bibliography will show.

National recognition was given to the excursion technique in 1931, at a conference of the Association of Childhood Education.⁷ A series of addresses on different aspects of the problem had been arranged to introduce the subject, and an interesting account of the popularity and extensive use of the school excursion in Germany led to a consideration of its possible usefulness in this country, and of the various points of interest accessible as excursion objectives in different localities. Among the particular points stressed was its value in widening the child's experience and in orienting him to his city. Inasmuch as the conference was primarily concerned with the school journey at kindergarten level, the discussion emphasized values rather different from those sought through the excursion for secondary pupils. It was thought desirable that excursions should be made only when other methods of instruction were inadequate to meet the end desired; and that they should be of very brief duration in order to leave the child with the feeling that many objects of interest were still unseen and were calling to him to continue his exploration at a later time. The need of following up the excursion by a detailed discussion of the experiences that it had provided was strongly expressed. Among practical suggestions made by the congress was the recommendation that each curriculum revision committee begin at once to make a survey of its city and to list the excursions which might advantageously be made in its own vicinity. This congress, therefore, not only brought the excursion into the focus of national attention, but also suggested ways and means through which a more detailed study and evaluation of it might be undertaken.

Obstacles to the growth of the excursion method.—Notwithstanding the theoretical acceptance of the excursion method in the United States, progress in its application has been slow here in comparison with that in some European countries. It is possible to single out several of the factors to which such relatively slow acceptance is attributable. The greater personal freedom accorded to young people in the United States—a freedom of expression and experience

⁷ B. Parker, *Studies of Environment*, pp. 1-53. 1931.

unknown elsewhere—and the absence in our educational procedure of the rigid traditional conventions and disciplines characteristic of certain of the continental systems, have meant that some of the most urgent needs that gave impetus to the development of the youth movement and the excursion technique, especially in Germany, have never made themselves felt here.

The needs for freedom and for activity have been met through means other than the school excursion. The school day is short enough to permit ample time for physical exercise and play. The multiplicity of interests which appeal during out-of-school hours offers opportunity for a wealth of experiences which fill the pupils' time completely. Much may be said for the claim that the day is already so filled that only by substituting a more worthwhile program can any new activity be introduced. It is not a question of adding the excursion to the present program, but rather of weaving it into that program.

It is true also that many American homes hold more varied opportunities of informal educational worth than are possessed by homes of corresponding level in other countries. The home library, the radio, and the family car, provide opportunity for both imaginary and real excursions. Such community activities as are provided by clubs, church, cinema, and other means of entertainment, fill and enrich the students' life. Summer trips are very often taken by the whole family, and often by the time the pupil graduates from high school he has visited the lakes, plains, and mountains within many hundred miles of his home. Children of less privileged families often find a partial compensation for the insufficiency of the home opportunities in the libraries, parks, and playgrounds in their immediate vicinity.

Another clue to the slowness of adoption of the excursion method in the United States is to be found in the fact that the majority of our teachers have had no personal familiarity with it, either in their own early school experiences or in the course of their professional training.⁸ Emphasis has been placed upon other teaching methods, and only recently has the excursion been given consideration in the

⁸ Z. A. Thralls, "The School Journey," *Elementary School Journal*, 28: 290-295, 1927

training schools for teachers. Few studies have been made of the excursion and comparatively little has been written about it. The available literature consists for the most part of brief articles in current periodicals and a few scattered chapters in books. Often articles contain only a description or discussion of some particular excursion rather than an evaluation of technique.

The numerous and varied teaching methods employed in the progressive American school include some which are closely allied with the excursion procedure and have done duty in its stead. An illustration of such substitute service is provided by the widespread use of such visual aids as illustrations in textbooks, pictures on bulletin boards, models, specimens, lantern slides, and motion pictures. Through these various means the outside world has been brought into the classroom so much as to make excursions seem less essential. One teacher, recently, in comparing the values of the motion picture and the school excursion, expressed a preference for the former because it permits so extensive an "excursion" to be made with so little effort. To the excursion enthusiast such an argument is similar to the claim that it is preferable to hear the Philharmonic Orchestra over the radio rather than in Carnegie Hall!

The inflexibility of the school program, especially in the secondary schools, makes it difficult to fit in excursions. They cannot be arranged during school time without interfering with the class schedule. A student has several teachers during a day, and some or all of these are affected by his absence on an excursion. In only a few elementary schools has there been a period definitely set aside for excursions.

In the Collings Experimental Schools in Missouri, the last hour of the day was set apart regularly on one day a week as a so-called "activity period," and this time was used for excursions; but in many schools choice must be made either of placing the excursions after school hours and on Saturdays or of disrupting the whole school program. Frequently, also, the amount of red tape connected with the arrangements to be made is so great that teachers who have been unable to arrange for the excursions easily, and to take them during school time, have felt that they did not repay the effort expended.

We may, further, bear in mind the fact that our schools make

generous provision for extra-scholastic activities sufficiently varied to meet every taste. Student government associations, athletics, dramatics, music, and clubs with specialized interests, offer abundant choice of valuable and diversified programs with which to occupy the free hours; and in some schools excursion clubs exist, which, as their name indicates, make the arranging of trips for their members their chief object. In fact some educational leaders have definitely favored reserving the excursion for extra-curricular programs rather than utilizing it as a classroom method.

The long distances which separate points of interest in this country, and the relatively high costs of travel, offer further obstacles to the use of the excursion method. European countries are compact, and distances are comparatively short; here, many communities are remote, and the countryside may afford little diversity and few points to meet the needs of a school excursion in the course of many long miles. The "open spaces" of America are, in spite of the automobile, often great enough to make excursions impracticable.⁹ In other countries it is usual for pupils to make the shorter excursions on foot; in this country walking is not always feasible. And, as a consequence of the longer distances to be covered, costs of transportation have limited the use of the excursion here much more than they have in Europe. European train fares are reduced for students from a third to a half, but in this country rates are often almost prohibitive.

One more hindrance encountered by the excursion method lies in the unwillingness of many teachers to assume the heavy responsibility for pupils' safety which some states and many communities impose upon them. Even when provided with the authorization of the school authorities, with waivers from parents, and with liability insurance, the teacher feels unwilling to risk the possibility of accident. In countries where pupils can conveniently reach afoot many of the places chosen for excursions, and where the danger of accident appears to be less, teachers feel that they are not taking undue risk.

It may be objected that the factors which have retarded the growth of the excursion still exists, and that the excursion is not an essential method in the advancement of education. It is true that other meth-

⁹ C. C. Van Liew, "A School Journey," *Educational Review*, 8: 23-24, 1894.

ods and activities provide some opportunity for learning through primary sources—of studying materials by actually using them—but few, if any, of these methods and activities offer so wide an opportunity to explore the environment and to increase interest and knowledge as does the excursion. Experimental comparison of the excursion method with other teaching methods, which is discussed in a later chapter, yields clear-cut evidence of the correctness of this statement. The whole case for the school excursion in relation to the objections against it has been well summarized by Cassidy, who writes:

America is vast in size, our motor roads have been developed, every home has the possibility of a car, our young people are not by tradition or inclination "wanderers" except for the pitiable picture of modern times presented by the itinerant unemployed youth. Our school teachers are not as a group given to finding their own recreation in hiking. Neither the schools nor the teachers encourage or plan for school journeys or wandering days in either the English or German custom. We are not yet so regimented by government that we require the schools to take the children out on walking trips so that they will learn to love and treasure the best beauties of the American scene.

America's own special way of taking children, during the long school holiday, out into the open can be seen in the summer camp movement and long family excursions. No other country has such a program, or could have, perhaps, with their short school holidays. The out-of-camp trips of two or three or more days' duration have given American children wandering experience of great value. The Scout program offers tours of the national parks, journeys to their great international meetings in various parts of the world, and the like, for a limited number of children.

Our young people are not raised in the tradition of walking or cycling. Except in limited areas, our country is not adapted to bicycle travel. Our youth are not as disciplined as foreign youth. We do not have a central unity of youth in America in a great challenging national cause which in Germany today draws them together and provides both individual and group ideals and standards of conduct. We have many more resources for commercialized recreation to lure youth from the simplicity of wandering. We do not have adequate recreational resources either for youth out of school or for young married couples.

However, our young people need just as much as do those abroad all the opportunities and experiences toward which the Youth Hostel is aiming. The opportunity to have inexpensive recreation, to build resources for the wholesome use of leisure for one's whole lifetime, to have a healthy outdoor experience, to adventure over the face of America seeing its beauties and feeling the challenge of the pioneer days, to love it so that as an American you wish to keep it beautiful, to help protect its resources from waste and exploitations, to keep the countryside from litter and ugly advertising, to learn to

know other wanderers, to learn how to travel inexpensively and well, to gain the happy fellowship of the road both at home and abroad—these experiences our people need¹⁰

Illustrations of use in experimental private schools.—The school excursion as carried out in the United States at the present time exhibits a wide variation of practice, ranging all the way from the occasional informal expedition which is initiated by the individual teacher to those definitely organized excursions which constitute an integral part of a school program. The most elaborate excursion programs are to be found in our progressive and experimental schools. Owing to their small classes, their especially equipped teaching personnel, the elasticity of their curricula, and their adequate financial resources, these schools have been able to experiment with the excursion procedure and to incorporate it into their activity programs. Their courses of study have in large part been built around groups of correlated activities planned for different age levels or for different grades, and include suggestions for excursions which may appropriately be made for the sake of their contribution to the subjects or topics of study.

The Lincoln School, one of the experimental schools of Teachers College, Columbia University, has made very extensive use of the excursion.¹¹ In the process of developing various units of work, excursions were made to seventy-nine different places, and from this large number a selection of the most profitable was made for future use. A brief sketch of some of these units indicates the manner in which the excursion method is applied.

The unit of study in the beginning of the first grade was "Life on the Farm." During the first half of the year visits were made to Central Park and to farms in order to acquire acquaintance with the conditions of country life, and to study trees and grasses. This study led naturally to that of the farm as the source of our food supply and the handling of some of its products. Visits to truck farms, dairy farms, storage and bottling plants, and to freight stations, were made, and were supplemented by museum visits. Pupils were required to

¹⁰ R. Cassidy, "Youth Hostels, England and Germany," *The Nation's Schools*, 19: 18-22, 1937.

¹¹ Lincoln School Elementary Staff, *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*, pp. 58-236 1927.

chart the excursion route on a large map of New York, and to keep a record of it in their excursion books.

The second grade continued the study of the sources and distribution of food products. After a preliminary discussion of a topic, the pupils were encouraged to formulate questions to which answers might be found through projected excursions—to an exhibit of threshing machines, a flour mill, and to baking and macaroni factories. After the excursions had been made, the class discussed the extent to which these had furnished the answers to the questions formulated earlier.

The third grade, with the Chinese and American Indians as general topics for the year, found in the museums ample material for repeated visits. The fourth grade made comparatively few excursions. In the fifth grade, water transportation was the subject, and the class studied the design and construction of ships, and made excursions to Staten Island, to the Brooklyn Navy Yard, and to trans-Atlantic docks to see some of the great modern liners.

The topic for the first half of the sixth grade, "How Man Has Made Records," lent itself to a historical approach through a study of the development of records. Visits to the Natural History Museum gave opportunity to make acquaintance with early Indian characters; visits to the Metropolitan Museum and the New York Public Library showed the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians, the Book of the Dead, and many other old manuscripts, including some of the rare illuminations of the Middle Ages. A visit to the Bronx Botanical Gardens was made to study the papyrus plant. Medieval architecture as a record of the mentality of the Middle Ages was studied through an excursion to the Barnard Cloisters; a demonstration of the processes involved in making an etching was observed at Teachers College; and a visit to a paper mill emphasized the contrast between the record-making of today and that of the papyrus period. In connection with the topic for the second half of the sixth grade, "How Man Has Told and Recorded Time," excursions were made to see the collection of timepieces at the Metropolitan Museum; the Aztec calendar at the Museum of Natural History; a collection of old astronomical charts, telescopes, and clocks, at the College of the City of New York; the zodiacal floor design at the

Columbia University library; and sun dials on the Columbia campus.

One of the most extensive excursions¹² made by the Lincoln School was a trip of eleven days through some of the southern states, which was carried out in connection with the senior class study of "Living in America." The excursion provided an opportunity to observe and study regional and national planning by both governmental and private agencies, and added much to students' understanding of regional planning, rehabilitation, agrarian problems, and the Tennessee Valley Project.

Before the excursion three weeks were devoted to study about the regions which were to be visited and the projects under way in them. A part of the time was spent in class discussion of the problems involved, a part in seeking further knowledge through study of the library references which had been given, and a part in planning the actual details of the trip.

A battery of tests was given at the outset to determine the amount of information possessed by the pupils, and the Kelley-Remmers "Scale to Measure Attitudes toward Any Institution" was used.

Teachers of the various subjects assisted pupils to obtain information which might be serviceable on the trip. The science teacher helped the pupils gain an understanding of the value, the use, and the conservation of natural resources; the instructor in social studies aided them in realizing the problems which the South faces, the value of cooperative planning, and the rehabilitation of the people and of the land. The art instructor suggested materials and techniques which might be used to sketch or otherwise record things and experiences of interest; and the music teacher directed singing of Negro spirituals and other southern songs, and taught the pupils to play harmonicas! Poems and stories of southern life were read for the sake of the added appreciation which they might help to give of the experiences in store during the trip. The trip was made as a preparation for the more detailed study of the problems and conditions to which it introduced the group, and pupils who were especially interested in any particular aspect of the problems were given opportunity to make a special study of them.

¹² Mr. J. A. Fraser, one of the instructors in charge of the Lincoln School excursion group, kindly provided information regarding details of the trip.

The various details of the excursions were planned and cared for by several "committees," among them an itinerary committee, a correspondence committee, a social courtesy committee, baggage committee, housing committee, and several others. Each pupil was a member of at least one committee, and a faculty member was in charge of each.

The group, made up of forty-eight seniors and eight teachers and guests, left New York in the early evening of January 28, 1938, and travelled by train to Virginia, and by bus to other southern states, returning by train from Washington eleven days later. It had experience of several varieties of over-night accommodations, for one night was spent on a train, one on a bus, three in construction barracks, two in homes of farmers, and others in automobile camps and hotels. The trip was financed from a grant made for experimental purposes by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. It cost somewhat more than \$4,000 for the fifty-six persons for eleven days.

New experiences multiplied during the excursion. Students "farmed" on a north Georgia farm near Clarksville, fought a forest fire at Hoffman, North Carolina, paid a visit to Hampton Institute, saw the Federal engineering project of which the Norris Dam is a part, visited Williamsburg, and studied the governmental undertaking at Greenbelt, Maryland. Practically no formal instruction was given by teachers during the trip. Small groups often talked about the things which they had seen, and frequently special guides explained points of interest. Pupils wrote up in diary form their notes on the things which had been of most interest to them.

It was during the visit to the farm project in Georgia that the students stayed for the nights in the homes of farmers in the community and shared in the work of the farm. Their actual contacts helped them to understand the problems of the Southern farmer, and the condition of his life. Some of the things about which they had learned while preparing for the trip acquired a new reality. The group which returned after eleven days was a weary one—but very enthusiastic.

The after-study of the materials provided by the excursion extended over about six weeks. Much of this time was spent by pupils in following out further their particular interests and the projects

developed around these, and in planning and working out some "culminating activity" for the trip.

During a part of the time devoted to this undertaking, the group was divided into committees, which discussed and organized the material provided by the excursion, and prepared reports on it which were presented orally to the group. Pupils who had studied intensively on some particular detail of the topic organized their material into several different projects to be carried out.

The tests of knowledge and of attitudes which had been given prior to the excursion were repeated to discover whether they would furnish any data which might be of help in evaluating the experiment. Among the anticipated results of the excursion for which some means of measurement seemed desirable are: increased understanding of soil erosion and its control, of the processes involved in converting falling water into electrical energy, in effecting flood control, and in making a river navigable; certain changes in attitudes and appreciations; and increased ability to recognize the principles underlying procedures, and to make generalizations.

The extensive use of excursions is characteristic of the experimental schools connected with Teachers College, Columbia University. The Horace Mann School for girls is equally well known as the Lincoln School for its use of trips in connection with the correlated program found there. The majority of the excursions made by the Horace Mann pupils are in New York City, and they are a definite part of the school program. The Social Science Department has used the excursion particularly in order to bring about changes in pupils' attitudes toward social problems, and to create an awareness of the citizen's civic responsibilities.¹³

The Collings' "Experiment with a Project Curriculum,"¹⁴ an experiment made in three rural schools in McDonald County, Missouri, provides another illustration of the use of the excursion in an activity program in which no formal subjects were taught. The plan followed in this experiment allowed for an excursion project period from 2:30 to 4:00 p.m. each day. The pupils in the school were

¹³ M. Harden, "The Community as a Laboratory for Elementary School Social Studies," *Social Education*, 1: 266-270, 1937.

¹⁴ E. Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*, pp. 50-87. 1923.

divided into three groups, Group I including children of from six to eight years, Group II, those from nine to eleven, and Group III, those from twelve to fourteen or over. During the four years' course of the experiment more than 150 excursions were made. These were all planned by the children and grew out of their own interests. They were motivated by class discussions and by previous excursions or experiences.

The expeditions made by the youngest group included a visit to Mrs. A's to learn why she grew sunflowers in her garden, another to Mr. B's to see him make molasses, a call on Mr. C to watch him candle eggs, and an excursion to Mrs. D's to observe weaving on a loom. Another trip was made to gather chinquapins and hazelnuts, and still another to gather wild flowers.

Soon after the opening of school two of the children contracted typhoid. This happening led their group, Group II, to the study of health conditions. A visit to the home of the sick children showed the presence of many flies in the vicinity, and led to a talk of the part played by the fly in spreading disease. Methods to be used in preventing such spread were learned through a visit to Mr. E's house and barn, where through the use of screens, spraying powders and destruction of breeding places, the fly had been eliminated. These excursions led on to further study of means of sanitation, of methods of food preservation, and of the sources of our food supply.

Group III made a study of governmental and civic enterprises of the community, conducted a school election, visited the city hall, the county court, and other points of civic interest. The study of the local government led to a consideration of our national government and governments of other countries. The excursions were made the foundation of the activity program, and many of the oral, written, and construction activities were based upon them.¹⁵

Illustrations of use in public schools.—Present use of the excursion is not, by any means, confined exclusively to experimental and private schools. Most of the articles on the excursion make mention of at least some one excursion which the author has found to be

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp 50-87. A list of the fifty-eight excursion projects for Group I are found on pages 53-54; the fifty-one projects for Group II on pages 68-69; and for Group III on pages 86-87.

valuable, and many articles contain references to extensive individual school or city "excursion programs." Some of these extensive programs are shown through city or state courses of study that suggest excursions which might be made, or through city reports of excursions which have been carried out. Two city systems which have adopted the excursion—those of Pasadena and of New York—have been chosen to illustrate its present use in the public schools.

The elementary schools of Pasadena, California, have recently adopted an elaborate course of study, entitled "Suggestions of Teachers in Guiding Pupil Experiences,"¹⁸ which, in its present provisional form, covers 720 pages. The course, which is built around seven major topics, one each for the kindergarten and for the other six grades, contains detailed suggestions for utilizing the excursion approach to the study of each particular topic or unit. The topics are listed below:

Kindergarten	Transition from home to school
Grade I	Home and school life
Grade II	Community life
Grade III	Children of other civilizations
Grade IV	California and its Pacific neighbors
Grade V	Transportation and the western movement
Grade VI	Communication, and Early civilizations

Excursions appropriate to each topic are suggested, and these range all the way from trips around the kindergarten room for the tiny tots to extensive, carefully organized excursions in Pasadena and Los Angeles for the older pupils. After the "excursions" around his own room, the kindergarten child extends his explorations to other classrooms and later to the school library and office. By the time he has finished the first grade, he has, in addition to his school building, visited near-by stores, houses under construction, and parks. During the second and third grades excursions are made to a fire station, post office, newspaper building, library, and other places of interest within easy access. In the upper grades, in which the American Indians, Pioneer Americans, and Peoples of Ancient Civilizations are studied, excursions are made to museums, points of historical interest, libraries which contain old records of the periods

¹⁸ Pasadena City Schools, *Suggestions to Teachers in Guiding Pupil Experiences*, pp. 1-720. 1936.

under consideration, the Spanish Mission Churches, the Chinese and Japanese districts, and the Hopi Indian country.

The pupil's view is thus gradually extended beyond the narrow horizon of the small child's individual world to that, first, of the community in which he lives, and ultimately to that of other peoples and ages.

One of the most ambitious attempts to use the excursion is the "ferryboat" experiment conducted in the New York City schools under the direction of E. B. Buck, Commissioner of Education, and W. L. Rice, Acting Director of Civics.¹⁷ Forty-one high schools participated in the experiment in which twenty-nine excursions around Manhattan Island were made. The trips were designed to acquaint 20,000 pupils with their city—its civic buildings, "skyscrapers," parks, historic monuments, markets, and waterfronts. The trips were made in connection with the civics instruction in the high schools. The pupils, on the half day given to the excursion for their group, went to the Battery, boarded a ferry boat, and took a trip around the Island. A lecturer, by means of a loud speaker, pointed out the points of interest en route, thus giving a "ferry-boat" view of the metropolis.

The experiment, which began on September 23, 1937, included two trips each day until the middle of October. It was made possible through a special fund of \$4,000 which was allotted by the Board of Education.

A preliminary examination of results of a test given to about 700 pupils shows that the pupils who went on the excursion were nearly 100 per cent better informed than those who did not go. As a part of the test the pupils were given a New York map on which they were to identify and locate twenty important points of interest which they had seen. The pupils were asked to check the places of interest they liked best and least, and to offer suggestions for the improvement of the trips. The results of the tests and the comments indicated that the excursions were worth-while from the standpoint both of the enthusiastic approval of this type of education by the pupils, and of the gain in knowledge. On the basis of the results obtained, the teachers and administrators connected with the experiment recom-

¹⁷ Board of Education, City of New York, *Civics Afloat*, pp. 1-37 1938.

mended in their report that the Board of Education continue the excursions.

Excursions of the elementary schools in New York include visits to day camps, museums, and places of historic interest, in connection with their studies. Five day camps which accommodate some 300 pupils a day are maintained by the school system. Pupils from the third through the eighth grade may go once a month for a day of study and recreation. When excursions to museums or to historic places are made an instructor explains points of interest. The pupils travel by subway through an arrangement between the Board of Education and the transit companies. Pupils are accompanied on these visits by the teachers, assisted by 400 Works Progress Administration instructors who have been assigned for the purpose. Mrs. A. M. Limpus, technical director of the field activity program, states that 122,000 pupils went on these trips during October, 1937.

Examples of extended excursions in Europe and in the United States.—It is of interest to note that in all the instances cited the excursion has been regarded as of sufficient value to warrant its incorporation in the course of study. Some of the progressive schools have, in addition to the short excursions included in the courses of study, organized prolonged and extensive tours for their students. In 1931 the Riverdale School for Boys, in New York City, sponsored its first European trip for a group of pupils, and still continues the practice. Two types of trips alternate: one year the glee club makes a tour of several countries—in 1935, for instance, the Scandinavian countries; and the next year a group interested in languages goes abroad to study the languages and customs of some one country.¹⁸

Several schools have sponsored rather extensive excursions through the United States for groups of their pupils. In 1932, half a dozen pupils of the Winbrook School, a small private school in White Plains, New York, made a seven days' automobile trip through the New England section, under the guidance of two teachers who provided the cars and did the driving.¹⁹ The pupils, who had been studying the New England states, did the greater part of the planning of

¹⁸ C. W. Ferguson, "Schools Out," *Readers Digest*, 28: 105-108, 1936

¹⁹ A. G. Peterson, "An Adventure in Real Learning," *Progressive Education*, 10: 154-158, 1933.

the trip, and, as a result of writing to various Chambers of Commerce for information and explaining their purpose and plan, they received hospitality for several meals, and in one place were given a night's lodging. Expenses for the week for the eight travellers amounted to \$138.64. As the pupils divided the teachers' expenses among themselves, the cost of the week's trip was \$23.10 for each pupil. This journey affords an illustration of what careful planning may accomplish with a moderate expenditure even in a region in which living costs are high. A similar trip in a European country, in which the hostels' overnight accommodations might be utilized for the equivalent of a quarter, would cost considerably less. According to the Youth Hostel Handbook about 5 cents would provide a satisfactory breakfast, and 20 cents a substantial dinner; but, if the pupils followed the custom of preparing all of their own meals at the hostels or on the road, they would, of course, need a longer time to cover the same amount of ground.

It is now customary for many school groups to visit Washington, New York, and other cities, during the Easter holiday and spring vacation, or during week-ends. Some such visits are primarily recreational, although they incidentally afford opportunity for experiences of very real educational value. If the purposes of all of these visits could be known, they would doubtless be found to cover the whole range of purposes which move any tourist group.

Perhaps the most interesting of the more ambitious excursions of which we have any account is one which was made by a group of juniors and seniors from the rural high school in Bentley, Kansas.²⁰ A students' "Tour Club" raised \$500 which it was estimated would be needed to cover the expenses of a group of sixteen travelling for a month by bus. The money was raised chiefly through the sale of subscriptions to the *Wichita Eagle* by the club members. The club undertook all plans for the trip, selected the route taken through the eighteen states and Canada, made in advance arrangements to visit places not ordinarily open to the public, and were even so fortunate as to be offered free accommodations for the party each night. The account of this Bentley High School journey reads almost

²⁰ W. E. Rich, "A School on Wheels," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 9: 185, 1936.

like a fictitious illustration of what even a small school may achieve in planning for and carrying out a very extensive excursion program. The itinerary included:

... many of the important cities of the East—Washington, D C , and New York City more thoroughly and exhaustively than the others. In the South, they saw Muscle Shoals, at Gettysburg they saw and heard President Roosevelt. In Washington they visited the House, the Senate, embassies, the Congressional Library, many other government institutions and the important sights of the city. In New York special passes admitted them to the New York Stock Exchange and Radio City Music Hall. They took all-night tours of the markets under the sponsorship of Columbia University. They went through ocean liners, took boat trips. Harvard and Wellesley Universities were their hosts and the historic points of interest were visited at Boston. In Detroit, it was the Ford Factory and Greenfield Village which took their interest. Two days were spent at the Century of Progress Exposition in Chicago. Sing Sing prison, Niagara Falls, Coney Island; Lynn, Revere, and Marblehead beaches in Massachusetts, all these and many other places were included.²¹

The true significance of such a trip may be realized as one remembers that:

Bentley is a small Kansas town. Nearly all the high school students are farm boys and girls whose horizon consists almost entirely of other farms like their own, whose friends are farm boys and girls. Morning and evening, year in, year out, their life consists of farm life. To such people, a tour such as the one briefly described will be a lasting inspiration, a cherished memory, perhaps a wellspring of ambition for a broader and more expansive life.²¹

Use of hostels in the United States.—The establishment of a chain of hostels patterned on the European plan is already under way in this country, and these will make possible excursions such as those of the Bentley and Winbrook pupils at a much less expenditure of money and of effort. Hostels are now open in many states largely as a result of the enthusiasm of the first directors of the American Youth Hostel Association, Monroe and Isabel Smith. When Monroe Smith graduated, at the age of seventeen, from the Mount Hermon School for Boys, he went as a teacher to the small town of Peru in the Berkshires. For a part of the time during which he held the position there he lived in a cabin which he had built with his own hands. He later continued his studies at Columbia University and elsewhere, and one year travelled through several European countries acting as leader and manager for a group of high school students who were

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 185.

endeavoring to keep expenses at a minimum by availing themselves of the hostel facilities. His youthful experiences in his little cabin in the hills, supplemented by acquaintance with the European hostels, convinced him of the educational value of the hostel movement. At the Second International Conference of Youth Hostels which he and his wife attended, in 1933, they were appointed directors for an American movement, which they promptly undertook to organize.²² During the summer of 1934 they travelled through Germany with a group of students, making a careful study of the hostel system there, and in the following winter—on Christmas Day, 1934—they opened the first youth hostel in America. The building used for this first hostel was the Northfield Chateau, an old hotel at East Northfield, Massachusetts, but this was given up the following year in favor of a more suitable building and more convenient location. After the opening of the first hostel, seventy-four others were quickly established in the six New England States. The hostels are sufficiently close to one another to make it possible to tramp or cycle easily from one to another in the course of a day. Their locations have been carefully chosen so as to permit their use nightly during a fairly long pilgrimage to the points of historical interest and natural beauty in which New England abounds.

In response to insistent demands for youth hostels in Michigan, a member of the National Staff was sent there in May, 1937, and in the following six weeks established twelve hostels, seven of them in the vicinity of Ann Arbor. The "loop" runs through Lansing, Battle Creek, and Kalamazoo to the shores of Lake Michigan, and follows in part the picturesque old Sauk Indian Trail from Detroit to Chicago. The headquarters for the Great Lakes Area is at the Saline Valley Farms, an experimental cooperative community twelve miles from Ann Arbor. Most of the hostels are remodelled farm buildings, just as they are in New England, and are situated from fifteen to thirty miles apart—the longer distances to be filled in later. Meanwhile those which are farther apart serve the needs of "bikers" if not of "hikers." Their establishment marks an important date for hosteling in the Middle West.

Hosteling was done in Michigan in the summer of 1937 at a

²² G. G. Telfer, "Youth Follows New Trails," *Parents' Magazine*, 10: 25, 1935

cost of a dollar a day. A group of girls spent fourteen days hosteling from Chicago to Ann Arbor and back for an expenditure of ten dollars each—which covered food, lodging, and the price of a round-trip ticket on the boat from Chicago to Benton Harbor, Michigan. New hostels will be opened before the coming summer (1938), and a sponsored trip through Michigan, Wisconsin, and Illinois is planned.

Schools in the area have been quick to recognize the educational significance of the hostels, and are supplementing their courses to give pupils some of the experiences of life in the open, of travel, and of increased acquaintance with the countryside and consequent better understanding of the interdependence of different social and occupational groups, which they make possible.

Tentative routes for hostel loops have been chosen in California. A loop of 118 miles is established in Pennsylvania. By the summer of 1939 the Hostel Association expects to be operating in New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Washington, and California.

The Association's plans for the future include the establishment of many more hostels, located not only throughout the East but perhaps ultimately forming a chain from coast to coast. The membership of the American Youth Hostel Association—The "A. Y. H."—numbered 1,750 at the end of the first year, and the increase in the membership which has been made since that time is in a large measure due to the tireless work of the directors, whose efforts have won recognition and support for the movement from educational leaders.²³

The membership fee of one dollar carries the privilege of staying at the hostels in any of the eighteen countries in which they have been established, at a cost not exceeding twenty-five cents a night. It follows, of course, that the hostel associations have given a strong impetus to the planning of extensive excursions throughout the countries in which their facilities are available. The hostels are provided with beds, blankets, cooking utensils, and equipment. The association members are expected to carry with them a sleeping bag and eating utensils. By purchasing and preparing their own

²³ *Youth Hostel Handbook*, p. 16, 1936.

food, members may live well during their travels at comparatively little expense.

At the present time the Hostel Association has no official relationship with the school, but it welcomes school groups to use the hostel facilities. In its annual report for 1936 we read:

It is interesting to note that several schools in America have already realized the value of hosteling as a part of their educational program. Several progressive colleges and high school classes have gone on the New England trail with their teachers during the school term. The A. Y. H. invites all educational institutions to take advantage of its hostels.²⁴

An eighth grade teacher in an elementary school in East Hampton, Connecticut, reports using the hostels during two excursions which she conducted for children from the fifth to the ninth grades. One of these groups, made up of ten boys and four girls, spent nights in the hostels at Branby, Connecticut, and Northfield, Massachusetts. The purpose of the excursion, made chiefly by bicycle, was to see the destruction wrought by the Connecticut River flood, and to observe the resultant changes in the river's course. The cost averaged about a dollar a day for each pupil. The other excursion was a four-day trip to Boston, during which the children stayed in the hostels there. From the Boston hostel as headquarters, the children made visits to Cambridge, to Lexington and Concord, and went to Sudbury to see the Wayside Inn.

The teacher who conducted these excursions, Miss Ruth Beckwith, states that careful preliminary planning for these trips was made in group conferences outside school hours. In an enthusiastic account of the experiences, she writes:

Our main aim in going was to have a good time and to see things other than those we can see at home. The first week in May (when the trips were taken) in both instances was vacation week—but I feel very definitely that school time could well be taken for this purpose with superior learning results.

I think the educational value, . . . in both cases was great. I believe it could be great in any group with the right leader and proper guidance.²⁵

Questionnaire surveys.—Further light on the excursion method as it works out in actual practice may be gained by studying the

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 85.

²⁵ Communication by letter.

findings of the questionnaire surveys that have been made. The earliest of these studies was made in 1920 by C. O. Davis.²⁰ It was conducted under the direction of the National Education Association, Department of Secondary School Principals, and its purpose was to study the methods that were being used in the teaching of citizenship. Only one question has bearing on the excursion: "Do teachers in your school conduct classes to places and institutions which reveal conditions that stir in pupils desires to render public service?—Name three types of visits thus made."

Replies to the questionnaire were received from 1,180 secondary schools in eighteen states. Of the 1,033 principals who answered the question quoted above, approximately half (47.9 per cent) replied in the affirmative. The remaining 52.1 per cent reported no use of the excursion in connection with their civic training work, for the question limits the kinds of excursion to those which "stir in pupils desires to render public service." A conscientious principal may have made a negative reply to this because he felt that such excursions as were taken by the pupils in his school were not definitely for the purpose of making an emotional appeal to them—of stirring them to render public service. It may probably be assumed, however, that the majority of principals interpreted the question broadly, and that as far back as 1920 excursions were customary for the citizenship training classes in about 50 per cent of the secondary schools.

The question also called for the naming of three "types of visits" made. Davis classified his replies under eight broad heads, but recognized the difficulty of making so simple a classification satisfactorily accurate and noted that the percentages given are only roughly valid. According to his figures, as shown in Table 3, more than two-fifths of the schools arranged excursions to industrial and commercial organizations, such as manufacturing plants, mines, farms, stockyards, and banks.

It would be of interest to know in just what way the excursions to each of these places stirred "desires to render public service."

²⁰ C. O. Davis, "Training for Citizenship in the North Central Association of Secondary Schools," *Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Secondary School Principals of National Education Association*, p. 52. 1920.

Civic knowledge may be expected as the outcome of visits to industrial and commercial establishments, and perhaps also a desire to improve the conditions observed there, but it may be questioned whether such visits could make nearly so strong a civic appeal as might be made by excursions to many kinds of places far less frequently visited.

About one-third of the schools reported excursions to courts, prisons, municipal offices, and sessions of governmental agencies.

TABLE 3

EXCURSIONS MADE BY SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR CIVICS STUDY *

Character of Place Visited	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Industrial and commercial	211	42.6
2. Courts and penal institutions	185	37.4
3. Civic councils and offices	166	33.5
4. Charitable institutions	100	20.2
5. Social settlements	77	15.6
6. State institutions	73	14.7
7. Local private enterprises	54	10.9
8. Religious and educational institutions	33	6.7

*Adapted from a study of 495 schools, by C. O. Davis.

Visits to hospitals, children's homes, poor farms, settlement houses—visits which might be thought the kind most likely to awaken a sense of civic responsibility—were made by not more than a fifth of the schools. The fact that industrial and commercial organizations were visited more often than civic institutions seems to bear out the assumption that all excursions made in conjunction with training for citizenship were listed by principals quite regardless of their likeliness to arouse in pupils the wish to render civic service.

Quite closely related to Davis's study of the use of the excursion in civics teaching is a questionnaire survey of methods used in safety education which is now being made by the National Education Association. The question which deals directly with the excursion is:

What is your opinion of the value of the following method for teaching safety at the school level where you are now assigned?

Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to factories, congested

highways and other scenes of accidents: 1 ... indispensable; 2 ... valuable; 3 ... useful; 4 ... ineffective, 5 ... harmful; 6 ... no opinion.

The answer to this question will throw light on the use of the excursion in an additional field—that of safety education.

Another questionnaire survey of secondary schools was made in 1932, by Koos and Kefauver,²⁷ for the purpose of discovering the proportion of schools employing the excursion method with classes studying occupations. The returns showed that 60 per cent of schools with an enrollment below two hundred, and 90 per cent of those with an enrollment of a thousand or more, made such excursions for vocational observations. Of the total number of schools reporting, three-fourths utilized the excursion as a means of showing occupational activities. A comparison of Koos and Kefauver's data with those obtained by Davis shows a far wider use of the excursion in the study of occupations than in the study of civics, wider by more than 25 per cent.

In 1930, a survey of extra-curricular activities in the elementary schools was undertaken by F. C. Borgeson,²⁸ of the Department of Education of New York University. Borgeson classified the school excursion under this category, and devoted one section of his questionnaire to it. Principals were asked to check on a given list the visits to such places, or excursions in connection with such interests, as were practiced in their schools. Five hundred and twenty-four returns, fairly well distributed among the different geographical sections of the country, were received. For the purpose of the present study, only the total number of schools reporting a particular kind of excursion is given in Table 4, and Borgeson's alphabetic listing has been rearranged, with some verbal changes, to emphasize the relative frequencies of the different varieties.

It is apparent from Table 4 that, in the group of schools studied, the visits to museums, field trips, excursions to parks, and visits to fire stations are made far more extensively than any others, more than half of the schools conducting museum visits, and approximately a third the other three varieties of excursions. More than 15 per cent report visits to points of historical interest, to factories,

²⁷ L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, p. 139. 1932.

²⁸ F. C. Borgeson, *Group Interest Activities*, Vol. 2, pp. 4-25. 1931.

and to zoological gardens, and a number of schools show astonishingly diversified excursion programs. Borgeson cites some very interesting accounts which he received of excursions that had been made to many places other than such as are usually visited.

Comparison of Borgeson's findings with those of Davis and of Koos and Kefauver is unprofitable, because their studies were made with quite different objectives. Borgeson wished to learn the extent

TABLE 4

VARIETIES OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR EXCURSIONS
MADE BY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS *

Place Visited or Activities Observed or Engaged in	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Museum	220	42.0
Field trip	200	38.2
Park	184	35.1
Firehouse	158	30.2
Historic site	116	22.1
Factory	103	19.7
Zoological garden	85	16.2
Greenhouse	75	14.3
Bank	76	14.5
Post office	76	14.5
Farm	73	13.9
Ice cream plant	59	11.3
Store	58	11.1
Court house	56	10.7
Telephone exchange	52	9.9
Police station	48	9.2
Printing office	41	7.8
Railroad station	39	7.4
Lumber yard	37	7.1
Ship	24	4.6
Observatory	23	4.4
Building trades	20	3.8
Automobile factory	18	3.4
Road and bridge building	13	2.5
Stockyard	13	2.5
Cannery	12	2.3
Ice plant	10	2.0
Cabinet-maker's shop	9	1.7
Cleaning and dyeing	7	1.3
Mine	4	.8
Unclassified	172	32.8

*Adapted from Borgeson's analysis of the varieties of excursions made in 524 elementary schools.

to which the excursion figured among the extra-curricular activities in secondary schools, and the character of the excursions made; the other investigators were endeavoring to find just what use was being made of the excursion procedure in the teaching of particular subjects, namely, civics and occupations.

One of Borgeson's aims was to find out the proportion of schools having excursion "clubs," and his findings on this point may be mentioned despite the fact that the chief concern of the present study is with the curricular excursion. Borgeson found seventy-two excursion clubs among 524 schools. In other words, 13.7 per cent of the schools had such clubs.

There is much to be said, of course, in favor of the very informal, extra-curricular excursion. Its purpose is to bring a group together for "a good time," and for the pursuit of interests which are not definitely tied up with courses of instruction, it belongs definitely in an activity or club program. Such clubs often serve an important purpose and meet very real needs. Some educators have felt that there is more to be gained by retaining the informal character of the excursion than by subjecting it to the restrictions which are imposed by its adoption as a method of instruction. As it becomes essentially a teaching procedure, and must be bent to the particular purpose related to some topic of study, it necessarily acquires organization and formality, at least to a degree compatible with the maintenance of its full instructional value. When used as a teaching technique, it is important that it be viewed by both teacher and pupils as dominantly an educational opportunity.

Members of the committee which, in 1922, studied the records of about fifty extra-curricular excursions made by the Philadelphia schools,²⁰ were, by their study, so thoroughly persuaded of its educational value that they strongly urged its inclusion in the regular school program, with the recommendation that, although all details of planning be left, so far as possible, in the hands of pupils themselves, the teachers assume complete responsibility for its supervision.

Another of the few available studies of the excursion was made

²⁰ Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Philadelphia*, Book IV, p. 156-158. 1922.

by R. H. Price,³⁰ Principal of the Junior High School of the State Teachers College in Whitewater, Wisconsin. Price was interested in the extent to which excursions and field trips were being made by the public elementary schools, the type of place chosen for those, the times of day or week devoted to them, and principals' judgments of their value. His questionnaire was so made as to permit also a comparison of their frequency in schools of six grades and in those of eight grades.

In 1932, Price obtained replies to the questionnaire from principals of 268 schools located in forty-five different states. His data on only one of these questions—the type of place chosen for excursions—need be considered at this point. He groups the places visited under ten heads, as shown in Table 5, and lists separately the percentages of the six-grade and of the eight-grade schools which make excursions to the kinds of places indicated. In addition to places classifiable under the divisions of the table, excursions to "airports, shipyards, submarines, nurseries, special types of gardens, flower shows, dunes, hotels, observatories, markets, historic spots, art exhibits, and Indian villages" were likewise mentioned on Price's responses.

TABLE 5
CHARACTER OF EXCURSIONS MADE BY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS*

Place Visited	Schools Reporting	
	Six-grade Schools (146) Per Cent	Eight-grade Schools (122) Per Cent
1. Museums	37.6	41.8
2. Civic buildings	36.9	34.4
3. Libraries	41.1	32.4
4. Parks	43.8	32.0
5. Urban industrial establishments	36.3	31.1
6. Higher schools	20.0	20.0
7. Rural industrial plants	28.1	18.8
8. Newspaper buildings	15.2	13.6
9. Banks	9.4	8.6
10. Commercial offices	3.8	2.6

*Adapted from a study of 268 elementary schools, by R. H. Price.

³⁰ R. H. Price, "A Study of the Value of Field Trips," *The National Elementary Principal*, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 13: 302-305, 1934.

Little difference is observable between the practice in the six-grade and in the eight-grade schools. The former seem, in general, to make a larger actual number of excursions; visits to museums seem slightly more frequent among the latter. Visits to museums were made by two-fifths of the eight-grade schools, and to civic buildings, libraries, parks, and urban industrial establishments, by about a third. Both Price and Borgeson found that the museum is the objective of the elementary school excursion more often than is any other single place. Excursions to parks stand high in frequency in the findings of both Price and Borgeson—32 per cent and 35 per cent respectively. A slightly higher proportion of excursions to observe rural industries occurred among Price's schools, and a larger number of visits to banks among Borgeson's. Comparisons are, however, difficult or impossible because of the difference in the classifications used in the two studies.

A study of the extent to which the excursion procedure is employed in high school teaching was recently undertaken by the writer. A section of one questionnaire used in the survey—discussed in full in Chapter IV—was formulated with a view to securing data concerning the kinds of places chosen as objectives for the excursions. Principals were asked to check on a given list the places to which their pupils had made excursions during the course of the preceding school year, and to note any additional ones that had been visited. The question under consideration was phrased as follows:

What are the types of places visited on excursions:

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| a. Factories | e. Historical landmarks |
| b. Stores and shops | f. Parks |
| c. Museums | g. Theatres |
| d. Municipal buildings | h. Country field trips |
| i. Others: | |

The results of the 187 replies received are shown in Table 6, in order of their decreasing frequency. It is seen that excursions to factories are made by four-fifths of the schools studied; country field trips and visits to municipal buildings by about two-thirds; visits to stores and to museums by somewhat more than half; and excursions to sites of historic interest, by only two-fifths.

TABLE 6

PLACES CHOSEN AS OBJECTIVES OF EXCURSIONS
MADE BY SECONDARY SCHOOLS *

Place Visited	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Factories	151	80.8
Country-field trips	126	67.4
Municipal buildings	111	59.4
Museums	108	57.8
Stores	108	57.8
Historic sites	75	40.1
Theatres	54	28.8
Parks	31	16.6

* Based on 187 replies to Question 2 of Principals' Questionnaire

Among the additional excursions listed by principals were visits to courts, newspaper offices, telephone and telegraph offices, farms, hospitals, and colleges. Concerts and music festivals, and competitions in spelling or scholarship, occasionally provided motives for an excursion. Visits were paid to sessions of state legislatures, lectures, conventions, and to post offices and public libraries. Places of industrial and commercial interest to which visits were made include ice and electric plants, banks, public utilities and commercial offices, photographic studios, a creamery, and a bakery. Visits to zoological gardens and flower shows, an excursion to study rare trees and flowers, and a trip to the mountains were also mentioned. One group visited a mine, another a restaurant, and still another a nursery school. Among the distinctly unusual excursions, those to a "cattle congress," to Indian mounds, to Niagara Falls, and to a New England town meeting are outstanding.

This last study, which is concerned with the excursion in secondary schools, may be compared in some respects with the studies made by Borgeson, by Koos and Kefauver, and by Price, in the elementary schools. The excursions to museums, which ranked highest in frequency in the elementary schools included in their surveys (in 42 per cent and 41.8 per cent) are reported by 56 per cent of the secondary school group. The secondary schools show a decrease in the number of excursions to parks—perhaps to be explained by the fact that the visits to near-by parks for nature study

by the younger children may have been replaced by field trips to the country for the older pupils in connection with their science work. Many more excursions to factories are made by the secondary than by the elementary pupils. It is of interest to note that the present study of secondary schools shows that 81 per cent of them conduct excursions to factories—as compared with Koos and Kefauver's 75 per cent of schools which use them for observation of occupational activities. Price found 34 per cent of his schools reporting excursions to civic buildings; the present study suggests an appreciable increase of such excursions in the high school. Country field trips, visits to stores, and excursions to places of historical interest are made by a larger proportion of the secondary than of the elementary schools represented in the groups studied.

SUMMARY

The early use of the excursion in the United States depended on the interest and initiative of occasional individual teachers and not upon any imposed program. The influence of European educational philosophers upon American thought, and the infectious enthusiasm of European-trained teachers who had witnessed the stirring effects of the excursion procedure furthered its use in this country.

Recognition accorded by city, state, and national educational departments or organizations furthered its development into a definite teaching technique. Progressive schools have incorporated the excursion into their curricula, and are experimenting with it as an instructional method.

The establishment in this country of a hostel system similar to that found in many European countries has already given impetus to the planning of more extended excursions than are feasible without its low-priced overnight accommodations.

Surveys of elementary and of secondary schools indicate that the excursion approach is employed to a considerable extent in the teaching of citizenship, and of vocational requirements and opportunities. More excursions are made to museums by both elementary and secondary schools than to any other single place, but scientific field trips and visits to parks, farms, factories, stores, and civic buildings are frequent.

Chapter IV

SOME ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF THE SCHOOL EXCURSION

THE school excursion depends for its success upon the cooperation of school principals, class teachers, and the pupils themselves. In order to learn something of the manner in which responsibility for its organization and administration is divided among these three groups, a questionnaire survey has been undertaken.

TABLE 7
GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

State	Number of Schools Receiving Questionnaire	State	Number of Schools Receiving Questionnaire
Alabama	19	Nebraska	21
Arizona	10	Nevada	13
Arkansas	17	New Hampshire	13
California	28	New Jersey	23
Colorado	22	New Mexico	11
Connecticut	18	New York	58
Delaware	10	North Carolina	18
District of Columbia	4	North Dakota	10
Florida	10	Ohio	29
Georgia	24	Oklahoma	23
Idaho	10	Oregon	12
Illinois	61	Pennsylvania	36
Indiana	46	Rhode Island	12
Iowa	26	South Carolina	14
Kansas	25	South Dakota	14
Kentucky	24	Tennessee	18
Louisiana	17	Texas	27
Maine	22	Utah	10
Maryland	13	Vermont	12
Massachusetts	28	Virginia	16
Michigan	41	Washington	22
Minnesota	32	West Virginia	12
Mississippi	14	Wisconsin	24
Missouri	26	Wyoming	12
Montana	14		

The first problems faced were those of discovering the schools which were employing the excursion procedure, and then of singling out from among them a group whose teachers and principals might be willing to furnish the desired data. To this end a list of 1,021 schools representing every state in the union was compiled by including two schools from each page of the secondary schools listed in Patterson's *Educational Index* for the year 1936. If fewer than ten schools for any state were yielded by this procedure, others were added to bring the total for the state up to that number. A minimum of ten preliminary questionnaires was then distributed in each state, the states with the larger populations receiving proportionately greater numbers. The actual number received by each is shown in Table 7.

For this preliminary inquiry a reply postal card was mailed to the principals of the 1,021 schools. In a paragraph addressed to the principal, the purpose of the study was stated and a request made that he fill out the reply card and return it to the sender. The reply card contained the printed form reproduced below.

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. School City..... State.....
2. Total Enrollment..... Grades, inclusive.
3. School excursions or trips are taken as a part of the regular class work during or after school hours by the following departments in my school. (check)

English ()	Art ()	Mathematics ()
Language ()	Music ()	Social Studies ()
Science ()	Com'l. ()	Practical Arts ()
Others		
4. No excursions are taken as part of school work. ()
5. I am willing to assist in a further study of this problem by filling out a short questionnaire. ()
6. I am willing to have my teachers who use the excursion fill out a short questionnaire. ()
7. Number of teacher-questionnaires which can be used. ()
8. Comments
9. Signed Date

The reply card was returned by 376 (36.8 per cent) of the principals. Of this number 275 (73.1 per cent) indicated their willingness to cooperate in the survey by filling out a brief questionnaire concerning the practice in their own schools, and 268 of these were willing to have a questionnaire answered by those of their teachers who were using the excursion method. Two hundred seventy-five questionnaires for principals were accordingly sent out; and a total of 1,300 questionnaires for teachers was distributed among the 268 principals who had specified the approximate number that would be required for their schools. A complete discussion of the teachers' questionnaire is reserved for a later chapter. The total number of the three questionnaires used, and the number of replies received, are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8
RETURNS FROM QUESTIONNAIRES

Designation of Questionnaire	Number of Returns				
	From Schools with Enrollment				Total
	1-500	501-1000	1001-1500	Over 1500	
Preliminary. Sent					1021*
Returned	145	108	57	66	376
Principals'. Sent	104	81	47	43	275
Returned	73	56	35	27	191
Teachers'. Sent	413	359	295	233	1300
Returned	132	107	120	117	476

* Schools have been graded according to size on the basis of the data obtained from the Preliminary Questionnaire.

Nine of the 376 replies to the preliminary questionnaire were discarded because of the insufficient information contained on them. Of the remaining 367 replies, 338 (92.1 per cent) came from schools utilizing the excursion method, and it is upon this number as a base that the percentages of excursions made in conjunction with the work of the different departments have been computed.

Of the 275 principals' questionnaires sent out, 191 (69.4 per cent) were returned. This exceptionally good proportion of returns—providing, as it does, data from more than two-thirds of the

principals cooperating in the study and more than 56 per cent of the 338 schools indicating their use of the excursion procedure—emphasizes the value of the preliminary survey. The proportion of responses received from that survey—376 out of 1,021—indicates, of course, that the schools represented in the present study constitute a selected group; but, as this study is concerned with certain details of practice among the schools using the method rather than with the mere extent of its use, this fact constitutes more of an advantage than otherwise.

THE PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

The preliminary questionnaire yields information on only one point immediately concerning the excursion—that of the relative frequency of its use in the teaching of different subjects. Table 9 shows the distribution among the nine departments listed on this questionnaire of the excursions made by the group of 338 schools during the school year 1935-36.

TABLE 9
RELATIVE USE OF EXCURSION PROCEDURE IN THE TEACHING OF
DIFFERENT SUBJECTS *

Subject	Schools Reporting Excursions	
	Number	Per Cent
Science	305	90.3
Social studies	229	67.8
Practical arts	191	56.5
Commercial subjects	147	43.5
Art	115	34.0
Music	104	30.8
English	92	27.2
Language	35	10.4
Mathematics	28	8.3

* Based on data from 338 schools for the year 1935-36.

It is seen that more than four-fifths of the schools report excursions in conjunction with science studies. The social studies run a close second to the science departments in the number of excursions made—more than two-thirds of the schools reporting these; and practical arts courses follow third, with more than half of the

schools making excursions in conjunction with such studies. Commercial departments use the excursion procedure in about two-fifths of the schools, and the art, music, and English departments, in steadily decreasing numbers. Excursions by the language or mathematics departments are mentioned by only about a tenth of the 338 schools in the group.

In so far as the studies discussed in Chapter III (pages 66-74) are comparable with the present study, their findings seem in accord with those summed up in Table 9. Borgeson's survey of elementary schools, showing the large number of field trips and visits to parks which they make, suggests that the excursion procedure is perhaps as much used in conjunction with the nature study of the younger children as it is in the science classes of the secondary schools. Davis found that half of his secondary schools make excursions in connection with civics study. This finding seems in harmony with the proportion of excursions made by classes in social sciences (Table 9), the "half" in the latter instance, however, proving very large indeed—67.8 per cent. Price discovered that museums and civic buildings, frequent objectives for classes in social studies, are visited by elementary classes more often than any other kind of place. Koos and Kefauver found that excursions are made in connection with the study of occupations in three-fourths of the schools included in their survey. Such excursions are probably similar to those that would be made by secondary school classes in practical arts, commercial subjects, and social studies. The principals' questionnaire indicates factories, country-field trips, municipal buildings, and museums, as the places most frequently visited by secondary school classes. In brief, it would seem as if all of the surveys which have just been mentioned point to the very frequent use of the excursion by classes in science, social studies, practical arts, and commercial subjects, and imply a less frequent use by other departments.

The data given in Table 9 have been tabulated in Table 9A to permit comparison of the use of the excursion procedure in schools of different sizes. Only a slightly greater proportion of excursions is made by the classes in science and in social studies in the schools with an enrollment greater than 1,500 than in the schools with an

enrollment of 500 or below. But differences between the larger and the smaller schools are more marked in some other departments: classes in practical arts and in commercial subjects in the larger schools make approximately 15 per cent more excursions, and classes in music and in English about 10 per cent more, than the corresponding classes in schools with a registration of under 500. The number of excursions made by classes in foreign languages seems to have no relation to the size of the school. The fact that art classes in the larger schools make a strikingly greater proportion

TABLE 9A
RELATIVE USE OF EXCURSION PROCEDURE IN THE TEACHING OF
DIFFERENT SUBJECTS IN SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT SIZE *

Subject	Number of Schools Reporting Excursions							
	Enrollment							
	1-500 (128)		501-1000 (100)		1001-1500 (51)		Over 1500 (59)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Science	116	90.6	88	88.0	46	90.2	55	93.2
Social studies	86	67.2	59	59.0	42	82.4	42	71.2
Practical arts	63	49.2	55	55.0	36	70.6	37	62.7
Commercial subjects	39	30.5	51	51.0	30	58.8	27	45.8
Art	20	15.6	34	34.0	27	52.9	34	57.6
Music	33	25.8	30	30.0	20	39.2	21	35.6
English	30	23.4	25	25.0	19	37.3	18	30.5
Language	11	8.6	11	11.0	7	13.7	6	10.2
Mathematics	14	10.9	10	10.0	2	3.9	2	3.4

* Percentages are based on the number of schools in each size-group

of excursions than do those in the smaller schools is, in all probability, the result of the greater opportunity for these which is afforded by the localities which possess the greater concentration of population. It is rather unexpected to find that mathematics departments are making excursions in about three times as many schools with a registration of under 1,000 as of over 1,000. It appears in general that more schools with an enrollment lying between 1,000 and 1,500 use the excursion method than do either the larger or the smaller schools. Perhaps the smaller schools are often located in communities which do not offer the same opportunities for excursions as the

larger cities. It may be, too, that schools with a very large enrollment find that there are so many factors to consider that the excursion appears too difficult to be undertaken frequently.

THE PRINCIPALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire for principals contains seven questions bearing on the organization and administration of the school excursion. Each question is followed by a list of possible answers. Principals were asked to indicate the practice in their own schools by a check mark in the appropriate blank space. The form described was chosen to facilitate both the principals' replies and the investigator's tabulations. Data given were to cover the school year ending in June, 1936. Answers were to indicate the usual procedure in the school. In case of wide variations of practice, a supplementary note of explanation was requested.

The points covered by the principals' questionnaire include:

- a. The number of excursions made in conjunction with the work of different departments
- b. The character of the places chosen as objectives
- c. Placement of responsibility for arrangements.
- d. The nature of the supervision exercised
- e. Methods used to meet expenses.
- f. Means taken to protect school authorities from liability for injuries
- g. Means of transportation utilized.
- h. Time placement of excursions.

The data on these points have been tabulated from the 191 returns made to the questionnaire. Not all of the papers, of course, contained answers to all questions.

The number of excursions made by different academic departments.—The findings on this point are shown in Table 10. It is interesting to compare these results with those in Table 9. It was apparent from that table that departments of science were using the excursion procedure more than were any other departments. Table 10, showing that a considerably greater number of excursions is made by the science departments than by any others, gives added emphasis to the value placed upon the excursion procedure in science work. Inspection of the figures in this table is sufficient to show that, irrespective of department, the number of excursions most fre-

quently made lies between one and four per year; that in general only about half as many schools report five or more excursions in science and social studies in the year; and that, with the exceptions of these two fields and practical arts, only about 5 per cent of the schools report ten or more excursions in the year in conjunction with the work in any subject.

TABLE 10
DEPARTMENTAL DISTRIBUTION OF EXCURSIONS
MADE BY 191 SCHOOLS IN 1935-36 *

Department Making Excursions	Number of Schools Reporting Excursions											
	None		1-4		5-9		10-15		15 and More		Total	
	No	%	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No	%	No.	%
Science	11	6.2	78	44.1	48	27.1	18	10.2	22	12.4	177	92.7
Social studies	20	13.2	81	53.6	32	21.2	9	6.0	9	6.0	151	79.1
Practical arts	35	26.1	58	43.3	27	20.2	7	5.2	7	5.2	134	70.2
Commercial subjects	41	30.2	66	48.5	24	17.7	3	2.2	2	1.5	136	71.2
Art	47	41.6	44	38.9	12	10.6	8	7.1	2	1.8	113	59.2
Music	41	33.6	58	47.5	18	14.8	4	3.3	1	.8	122	63.9
English	53	39.6	58	43.3	15	11.2	4	3.0	4	3.0	134	70.2
Language	81	69.8	31	26.7	2	1.7	1	.9	1	.9	116	60.7
Mathematics	81	71.1	29	25.4	1	.9	3	2.6	0	.0	114	59.7

* Percentages for each department are based on the number of returns reporting excursions in that department. Percentages of totals are based on 191 replies to Question 1 on the principals' questionnaire.

Price's classification of the excursions of the group of elementary schools which he studied was made on the basis of the character of the places chosen as objectives.¹ Price found among these schools an average of five excursions each to parks and to civic buildings; of four each to libraries and to museums; of three each to urban and to rural industrial plants; and of one each to higher schools, newspaper plants, banks, and commercial establishments. The excursions to parks may be supposed to be made in connection with the nature study work, and therefore may parallel the high school science excursions; those to civic buildings and museums perhaps correspond to the excursions of the classes in social studies in the higher schools; the visits to libraries, and to urban and rural in-

¹ R. H. Price, "A Study of the Value of Field Trips," *The National Elementary Principal*, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 13. 303, 1934.

dustrial plants, correspond in general to the excursions made by the departments of English and of practical arts respectively. A certain rough correspondence exists between the frequencies of the various excursions studied by Price and the frequencies of the corresponding departmental excursions shown in Table 10.

Character of the places chosen as objectives.—Of the places listed on the questionnaire, factories, country-field trips, municipal buildings and museums are the kinds of places most frequently visited, while theatres and parks are least often visited. The details of these findings, it will be remembered, have already been discussed in Chapter III, pages 72–74, and need not be repeated here.

Placement of responsibility for arrangements.—The making of appropriate arrangements for an excursion with the authorities of an institution which it is desired to visit devolves, under different conditions, upon one or several individuals or groups. (See Table 11.) It is, of course, the teacher upon whom responsibility most often falls for the execution of whatever preliminaries are essential to any given excursion. This is true in three-fourths of the schools which reported on this point. From the manner in which the questionnaires were checked—many of the schools indicating a division of responsibility for the undertaking—it appears that the teacher

TABLE 11
ARRANGEMENTS FOR AN EXCURSION WITH AUTHORITIES OF AN INSTITUTION*

Person or Group Making Arrangements	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Entirely responsible	105	56.4
Teacher	62	33.3
Principal	40	21.5
Other administrative officers	3	1.6
Partly responsible	81	43.6
Teacher	80	43.0
Principal	66	35.5
Pupils	28	15.1
Other administrative officers	7	3.8
City or school committee	1	.5

* Based on 186 replies to Question 3 of Principals' Questionnaire.

may, and more often than not does, delegate to the pupils the care of some details. In more than half of the schools, the principal takes part in making arrangements, assuming entire charge in a fifth of them, but more frequently sharing the work with the teacher, or with some committee or other administrative officer. Arrangements for an excursion are occasionally made by other school officials than the principal or teacher. One school reported that they were made by the superintendent for excursions outside of the city. In about one school out of seven the pupils share the task of making the preparatory arrangements, but no case is reported in which they are given entire charge. According to the comments, in about one per cent of the schools parents undertake the necessary arrangements. One school—the High School at Elgin, Illinois—has a school committee which is empowered to make the necessary contacts with the authorities of the organizations which are to be visited. Schools in which it is customary for the principal at some times and the teacher at others to arrange for the excursions show a nearly equal division of responsibility between them.

The preparatory arrangements for an excursion will, naturally, vary according to the individual excursion in question. In general, however, they will include: securing permission for a class visit from the authorities of an organization or institution; obtaining a definite understanding with them of the exact type of exhibit or demonstration which will best meet the needs of the group; arranging for the services of guides when necessary; learning the size of the group that can be accommodated; fixing the time of arrival; and deciding upon the possible or desirable duration of the visit. For long excursions, arrangements may have to be made for meals and overnight accommodations. Expenditure of effort on all such details will be repaid by the increased success of the excursion.

If an organization outside the official school system, such as a parent-teacher association, should desire to cooperate in meeting the costs of an excursion, arrangements must be made with its authorized representative. Perhaps parents can be of service more often by lending their cars than in any other way, and by helping the teacher in supervision of the group during the trip. Such help is especially appreciated when the group for which a teacher is

responsible is a very large one. If it should be desirable for a group to make repeated visits to a particular museum or factory, the school and the organization authorities may find it desirable to work out together a program for a series of excursions.

Local newspapers may give much help to an excursion program by carrying accounts of excursions which are made and planned, and in this way helping parents to acquire a clearer understanding of the educational purpose underlying excursions and of the manner in which they form an integral part of the school work. Occasionally some industrial organization will, as an advertising measure, not only furnish transportation for pupils who are to visit it, but even provide a "treat" at the end of the visit. There are numerous local organizations which, if properly approached, may be glad to lend their aid in furthering an excursion program. Good judgment is doubtless a teacher's greatest asset in discriminating among the agencies with which to develop contacts.

Supervision of excursions.—The degree of supervision which a principal exercises over the excursions made from his school may be in part inferred from the kind of report concerning them which he requires. In 14 per cent of the schools in the group, the principal requires a written report from the teacher after each excursion. In 86 per cent, no written report is required. In two schools an oral report is given by the teacher; in one, the head of the department is responsible for supervision of the excursions.

Seven per cent of the schools have a faculty committee for the supervision and encouragement of excursions. The fact that 14 per cent of the principals require either a written or an oral report upon the excursion, and that only 7 per cent of the schools possess excursion committees, seems to show that no particular supervision is being given to the excursion programs of individual teachers. The role of the principal at the present time appears to be limited largely to assisting teachers in making their arrangements with the authorities of the organizations which they desire to have their pupils visit.

Methods used to meet expenses.—As might be expected, much variation is found in the means used to meet the expenses entailed by the excursion procedure. It is seen from Table 12 that in two-thirds of the schools a single group meets the expenses for all of

TABLE 12
RESPONSIBILITY FOR EXPENSES INCURRED *

Person or Group Defrayed Costs	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Entirely responsible for defraying costs	120	69.0
Pupils	109	62.6
Board of Education	9	5.2
Student organizations	2	1.1
Partly responsible for defraying costs	54	31.0
Pupils	47	27.0
Student organizations	30	17.2
Board of Education	19	10.9
Community groups	4	2.3

* Based on 174 replies to Question 5 on Principals' Questionnaire

the excursions, while in the other third of the schools the costs are defrayed by more than one group. If the responsibility is assumed by a single group, it is by pupils in nearly two-thirds of the schools, by the Board of Education in 5 per cent, and by student organizations, such as the Student Council or clubs, in only 1 per cent.

When costs are met by the cooperation of two or more groups, pupils themselves are one of the groups in more than a fourth of the schools, student organizations in about a fifth, and Boards of Education in a tenth. Community groups very rarely help toward defraying excursion expenses.

If the cases of single and of cooperative responsibility are considered together, it is seen that pupils meet part or all of the cost in 90 per cent of the schools, and the Board of Education or student organizations each in about a sixth of the schools.

Among other sources of excursion funds which are mentioned on the returns are candy sales, sale of football programs, and special entertainments of different kinds with paid admissions.

Often, of course, the expense problem does not arise; for instance, when pupils, parents, or teachers lend their automobiles, or when the objective of the excursion is within walking distance.

It would be of interest to know in just what way the Boards of Education meet excursion costs. It may be that they do so either

through furnishing chartered busses or school busses, thus eliminating the transportation cost, which is admittedly the heaviest item of expense. Or perhaps some of the 16 per cent of the Boards which provide for part or all of the expense include in their budgets an item setting apart a fund for excursions just as they do for library or laboratory equipment. If this were found to be the case, it would indicate clearly that the Boards are recognizing the excursion technique as a method worthy of its cost. One instance in which a Board of Education has included such a special budget item for excursions is found in the recent appropriation by the New York City Board of Education of \$4,000 for the purpose. This amount is set aside to pay for subway transportation for excursion groups, under a special arrangement with the transit companies, and for the chartering of ferry boats to make high school excursions around Manhattan Island.

Protection of school authorities from liability for injuries.—The problem of determining the best means of protecting teachers, principals, and other school authorities from liability for injuries which might be incurred by pupils in the course of an excursion is difficult, and most important. The section of the questionnaire devoted to this aspect of the excursion was intended primarily to yield information regarding the extent to which Boards of Education and schools are carrying insurance for this purpose or requiring parents to sign waivers of all claim in case of accident, or both.

Turning to the data on this point, which are summed up in Table 13, we see that in 22 per cent of the schools insurance is carried either by the school itself or by the Board of Education, and that in 78 per cent insurance is not carried. A third of the schools require a waiver of accident claims from parents, and two-thirds have no such requirement. In less than 6 per cent of the schools is there protection by both. Further analysis of the data shows that 13 per cent of all the schools carry insurance but do not require a waiver, and that 28 per cent require a waiver but carry no insurance.

The waiver which parents are asked to sign is similar to those commonly required before permission is granted to pupils to participate in organized athletic contests, or those sometimes required from would-be visitors before permission is given to inspect

TABLE 13
PROTECTION AGAINST LIABILITY FOR INJURIES *

Measure of Protection	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Insurance (176 replies)		
Carried	38	21.6
Not carried	138	78.4
Waiver from parents (165 replies)		
Required	57	34.5
Not required	108	65.5
Insurance but no waiver (155 replies)	21	13.5
Waiver but no insurance	44	28.4
Both insurance and waiver	9	5.8
Neither insurance nor waiver	81	52.3

* The percentages are based on the number of replies to the different sections of Question 6 on the Principals Questionnaire.

a commercial or manufacturing plant when such inspection involves proximity to machinery or other risks. As an illustration of a convenient form, that in use in the history classes at the high school in White Plains, New York, is reproduced below.

Parents' Waiver

.....
(Name of Applicant) (Date)

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to certify that my (son, daughter),, has my permission to go on excursions with the history class of the White Plains High School, I hereby assume for myself full responsibility for (him, her) in case of accident, and waive any and all claim against school authorities, individually or collectively, for any injuries which might be received during the excursion, either at the place visited or in travelling to or from such place.

.....
(Parent's Signature)

Although, so far as may be judged from the data received, no measures whatsoever of protection against liability for injuries to pupils seem to exist in half of the schools, in those cases in which measures are taken they range all the way from the rather inade-

quate to the most rigid. An example of the latter is found in Scarsdale, New York. Here the Board of Education not only requires a written permit from the parents for each individual excursion to be made by a pupil, but also requires that no busses be used for excursions except those obtained by requisition through the Business Office of the Board.

State laws and the policies of Boards of Education differ widely, and additional information on these points, and on the practices of particular schools, is much needed in order to enable the problem of protecting school authorities from liability for injuries to be more adequately studied. The provision of such protection, through insurance and through parents' voluntary relinquishment of accident claims, is of vital importance to the growth and extension of the excursion procedure.

Means of transportation.—If the objective of an excursion is within walking distance of the school, transportation of course presents no problem; but when it is desired to make an excursion to a rather distant, or perhaps not easily accessible point, the provision of suitable means of travel for the group may present real difficulties. Choice of the means will naturally be determined by the

TABLE 14
MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION *

Means	Schools Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Automobile	138	73.4
Walking	116	61.7
Bus	97	51.6
Train	18	9.6
Streetcar	13	6.9

* Based on 188 replies to Question 7 of Principals' Questionnaire.

distance to be covered, the size of the group, the age of the pupils, and the character of the transportation facilities locally available. Table 14 gives the data received on the means of transportation.

The common means of transportation are walking, automobile, bus, train, and streetcar. Nearly three-fourths of the schools (73 per cent) make excursions by automobile; about half use busses

for some excursions; and less than a tenth make use either of train or of streetcar. Three-fifths of the schools make at least some of their excursions to places within walking distance.

A report of the means of transportation used by younger children was recently made by Lovella Egan, district superintendent of the Kindergarten-Primary Department of the New Orleans Public Schools.² Egan found that, out of 982 excursions made during the year 1935-36 by the kindergarten and the first, second, and the third grades, 700 (71.3 per cent) were made on foot, 18.4 per cent by streetcar, bus, and ferry, and 10.2 per cent by automobile. It is natural to find a high percentage of elementary school excursions in which the children walked to and from the places visited, for in the lower grades it is the immediate environment which is to be explored, and there is less need than in the higher grades for excursions to distant parts of the city or community.

Time placement of excursions.—Eighty-three per cent of the schools report that some or all of the excursions are made during school hours; 46 per cent report excursions after school hours; and about the same number, on Saturdays. It is interesting to find so large a proportion of schools making provision for excursions during the regular school hours. Such provision may be accepted as a tacit recognition of their value.

In studying the value of field trips in the elementary schools, in 1932, Price found that 53.1 per cent of his schools made excursions during school hours, that 42.1 per cent made them both during and after school hours and that 4.8 per cent made them only after school hours.³ The tendency toward the inclusion of excursions in the regular schedules of school work seems to be shown by this survey also.

SUMMARY

Data from two questionnaires show the excursion method to be used most often in conjunction with science classes and social studies, and least often with languages and mathematics.

² L. Egan, "We Go Places—An Excursion Program," *Childhood Education*, 13: 266-268, 1937.

³ Price, *op. cit.*, p. 303.

Responsibility for making the essential preparatory arrangements for excursions usually devolves largely upon teachers, who may often, however, receive assistance from principals and delegate care of minor details to pupils.

Teachers enjoy a large measure of freedom in carrying out their excursion programs, for little supervision of any kind is exercised by principals or other school authorities.

Pupils meet the cost of the excursion more frequently than any other group.

Protection of teachers and others from damage claims for possible injuries received by pupils during excursions is secured through insurance and through the requirement that parents sign a waiver of such claims before permission is accorded a pupil to participate in a class excursion; but more than half of the schools studied lack any such protection.

Excursions by automobile and on foot are made by more schools than excursions by any other means of transportation.

Over three-fourths of the schools make some or all of their excursions during school hours.

Chapter V

THE ANALYSIS OF EXCURSION PROCEDURES

THE excursion technique may be conveniently studied by considering separately each one of its three major aspects. These are the planning, the conducting, and the retrospective use of the excursion. Each of these procedures may be handled in a variety of ways, and any desired selections from among the many which are available may be combined to build up a technique adapted to local needs and conditions.

The data presented in this chapter are derived from two sources: from such descriptive and analytic material as could be found in the literature; and from the returns to a questionnaire made by nearly 500 teachers who are using the excursion technique. It was mentioned in the preceding chapter that 1,300 teachers' questionnaires were sent to the 275 principals who had expressed willingness to have them filled out by teachers in their schools and to assume the task of returning them to the sender. The number sent to each principal was that which he had indicated would probably be needed for his teachers; but as teachers' replies to the questionnaire were of course optional, and as principals in many instances probably asked for a sufficient number to provide all teachers in their schools with a copy, it is impossible to determine whether the number of returns—476 (36.6 per cent)—really represents a small or an excellent proportion.

The manner of distribution of the teachers' questionnaires and of their collection and return—through the principals of the schools in which they were filled out—has already been explained in the preceding chapter. Certain further facts in regard to it may be appropriately considered at this point, preceding the citation in the following sections of many of the data derived from it.

The teachers' questionnaire is printed in full in the Appendix (pages 197 to 201). It was framed with the double purpose of

discovering some details of the practice of teachers who are actually using the excursion procedure in their work, and of securing an expression of their judgment regarding some of the values which have been attributed to it. Eight of its ten questions bear on different points of practice, and the remaining two are concerned with values. Question 1 was intended to supplement or to cross-check numbers 1 and 2 of the principals' questionnaire and number 10 of the teachers' questionnaire. Owing, however, to the many and varied interpretations put upon it, it has seemed advisable to discard the responses entirely. This discard can be made without loss because the questions 1, 2, and 10 have yielded the most essential data.

The tabulations of data from questions 3, 9, 10, 8, 4, 5, and 6 respectively are shown in Tables 15 to 21 and are discussed in this chapter. Questions 2 and 7 regarding values of the excursion are discussed in Chapter VI. Space is left after questions for teachers to volunteer any additional suggestions regarding the organization of the excursion which appear to them to be of worth.

In the directions given at the beginning of the questionnaire, the school excursion is defined as "a definitely organized trip taken as part of class instruction, although not necessarily taken during the class period." It is, further, explained that the questions refer to the general, or usual, procedure followed during the school year 1935-36, the same period as that covered by the principals' questionnaire.

Suggestions made in the course of the immediately following section—on the development of an excursion program—have been gleaned largely from the literature. The discussion of the succeeding sections—on planning individual excursions, on conducting them, and on their retrospective use in class work—is largely based on the findings of the teachers' questionnaire described above. It will be remembered that the replies to the teachers' questionnaire have been made by teachers who are actually using the excursion and that the answers are, therefore, based upon their personal experience. The returns contain the kind of information in which we are interested—the actual practice found in the schools—but they may give a too favorable picture of the excursion in consequence of the enthusiasm felt for it by those who use it.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EXCURSION PROGRAM

The first step toward the development of an excursion program is to make a general survey of the city or community in which it is proposed to inaugurate the program, for the purpose of discovering the number and variety of opportunities for appropriate excursions which it offers.¹ Such a survey might be undertaken either by individuals or by groups. An individual teacher would probably begin the compilation of a list of places suitable as excursion objectives by setting down those which naturally came to mind in thinking over the various sections of the community, and then add to it from the various sources to which she directed inquiries and from her own active exploration of the vicinity. But the choice of excursion opportunities made by any one teacher is more than likely to reflect the natural bias in behalf of her own subject, and to include a preponderance of places appropriate for excursions in connection with her own particular field of work. Moreover, anything approximating an exhaustive survey would necessarily demand an undue expenditure of time and effort from a single person, and even then fail to yield any large number of places from which teachers who desired to do so might make their own selections.

Schools or school systems which lend active encouragement to the development of an excursion program frequently hand over to a committee representing the widest possible range of subjects the task of making the survey of excursion opportunities. It was suggested at the Conference of the Childhood Education Association, in 1931, that the curriculum committee is the logical body to make such a survey and to catalogue the suitable excursions. Some of the larger city systems have standing committees for the purpose. In the city of Oakland, California, a study of the desirable objectives for excursions was made by a committee of twenty-five of the city teachers. Their findings were organized according to "units of instruction" rather than by school subjects, and were prepared for distribution in pamphlet form under the title, "Some Oakland School Journeys and What Came of Them."²

¹ M. E. Reese, "Excursions for Pupils in the Typical Urban or Rural Community," *Educational Method*, 14: 195-199, 1935.

² W. E. Givens, "School Journeys," *American Childhood*, 19: 6-7, 1933.

Another proposed plan for a survey of excursion opportunities is that the excursion be made a semester's topic for professional study by an entire school faculty.³ One part of such a study might be the preparation of an excursion list. The building up of such a list would give to teachers an increased understanding of the community, an acquaintance with many points of local interest which might otherwise remain unknown, and an appreciation of the values that a visit to any of these might hold for a class. It would seem also as if such a concerted faculty effort should lead to increased interest on the part of teachers and tend to create an "excursion consciousness" throughout the school.

Valuable aid in surveying a community for places of interest may often be given by the pupils. The mere fact of their being asked to contribute suggestions will arouse their enthusiasm for the excursion program, and they and their parents may be able to point out places that might readily be overlooked by persons less familiar with the community. Pupils' ideas of what is being sought for become clearer after they have participated in a few excursions, and their suggestions become proportionately more practicable. In some instances city guide books have grown from the pooled efforts of teachers and pupils. "A Stranger's Guide to New York," prepared some years ago by pupils of the Speyer Experimental Junior School,⁴ and "Philadelphia's Colonial Chain," compiled by a group in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, are outstanding illustrations of the potential value of the active cooperation of pupils in assembling a list and a description of places of interest in their cities.

Any list of excursions should be subjected to continual revision. New excursion objectives will be added from time to time, and some which failed to provide what was expected of them will be dropped. Of course any list of proposed excursions must be used with judgment. It is of paramount importance to remember that excursions are not to be selected merely because they promise a pleasurable and interesting experience, but because they are expected to make a definite contribution to the study of some particular subject.

³ J. McCallum, "All Aboard for Excursions," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association*, ix. 455-460, 1932.

⁴ T. H. Briggs, "The Excursion as a Means of Education," *Teachers College Record*, 22: 419, 1921.

A quite different view of the value of the exhaustive initial survey is held by those who believe it preferable to allow each excursion to grow naturally as an answer to some need of a class. The advantage of this procedure is held to lie in its making of the excursion a motivating force, a live interest, a direct attempt to solve a problem or meet some other need, rather than merely a particular activity to be carried out. One disadvantage, however, of waiting until a need appears in a particular class is that the teacher may be unaware of the possibility of meeting it by any excursion that appears practicable. It seems probable, therefore, that the preparation of an excursion program is best undertaken by listing the local opportunities discovered through a preliminary survey, and supplementing these by such excursions as are discovered from time to time through the efforts of teachers and pupils to meet some specific purpose.

The teacher's selection, from among the excursions listed, of those which are most likely to contribute to her own courses must be made with the utmost care. It involves a very careful weighing of the advantages of the different ones with reference to her particular purposes, and may even demand a personal excursion before she is in a position to evaluate it with reference to her own ends. Sometimes a highly desirable excursion must be sacrificed in favor of one which may offer less but be more feasible for a class to make under any given conditions. The teacher's tentative list of excursions for her class for a school year will nearly always be revised after she has once made the excursions with her class, for she will be in a position to gauge their real value to best advantage only after actually making them with a group. She will thus gradually be able to build up a program of excursions for herself which should contribute admirably to the purpose of her work.

PREPARING FOR AN EXCURSION

The teacher's planning for any excursion will usually include several definite steps, among which are essentially: (1) creating in pupils an awareness of its need, and aiding in a clear and definite formulation of its purpose; (2) planning the mechanical details; (3) equipping herself to give a maximum of service; and (4) preparing the class to derive a maximum of profit.

Awareness of need and formulation of purpose.—Pupils must, to begin with, be made alive to the fact that the excursion will meet some definite need which they have; a need for more factual knowledge regarding a subject—knowledge which might obviously be acquired at the headquarters of some municipal department, or at a museum; need of opportunity to become acquainted with some manufacturing process, or with particular working conditions—opportunity which would perhaps be afforded by a visit to a factory; need for securing some kind of personal experience, such as viewing great works of art, or witnessing a dramatic performance, experience which must be presupposed in any attempt to develop aesthetic appreciation of such forms of art; need for such materials for study as might be collected during a field trip. The teacher's judicious guidance of discussion can nearly always make apparent the value of an excursion for any particular end, and she may heighten class interest in the excursion by showing pictures or films, by asking a pupil to report on some aspect of the study, or by any of numerous other devices.⁵ Since, however, the very word "excursion" connotes a pleasurable deviation from usual routine, some new thing to be seen, an unwonted measure of liberty to be enjoyed for a space, it is probably unnecessary to devote much time to a consideration of devices which might be resorted to in order to arouse interest! What must be very definitely stressed, however, is the imperative need of crystallizing interest into certain sharply defined forms. It is, for instance, essential, for one thing, to insist that the purpose of the proposed excursion be formulated clearly and accurately. It is only too easy for a teacher, in striving to create in a class the desire to make some excursion, to permit herself to stress so large a variety of its interesting aspects as to produce a certain amount of bewilderment in pupils' minds as to what its fundamental purpose really is. If, for example, the conditions under which weavers work are to be studied, it is easy, unless care be used, to let the machinery, the process itself, the colors and designs of the textiles, or the distribution of the finished products, stand out in the minds of some of the children as the real object of the excursion, for children

⁵ C. F. Hoban, "Possibilities of Visual Sensory Aid in Education," *Proceedings of the Seventieth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association*, 70. 118-122, 1932.

will, of course, always attend to what they are individually interested in. It becomes therefore very necessary to limit and define the purpose of the excursion in advance. Other interests which it possesses may be mentioned, but must be held strictly subsidiary to the main purpose. It is, perhaps, a help in doing this to keep in mind certain questions, such as: Why should this particular class make this particular excursion (rather than some other) at this particular time? What will be gained by making it? The reduction to clear verbal expression is an important part of the clarification in the child's mind of the exact purpose of the excursion.

The need of making an excursion at any particular stage in a study will, of course, depend largely upon the kind of use which it is intended to make of it—whether it is desired to use it primarily as a mode of approach to a new unit of work, or as a means of supplementing information on a topic which is already being studied, or as the culminating stage of the study of some field unifying the miscellaneous information previously acquired. A writer in one of the Pennsylvania Educational Monographs has made a concise summary of the functions which an excursion at its best may, as he sees it, be made to assume. It may be used, he writes:

1. to serve as a pre-view of a lesson and for gathering instructional materials.
2. to create teaching situations for cultivating observation, keenness, discovery—to encourage children to see and know the things about them
3. to serve as a means of arousing specific interests—as in birds, trees, art productions, and historical settings.
4. to supplement classroom instruction; to secure definite information for a specific lesson—as in arithmetic, civics, geography, literature.
5. to verify previous information, class discussions and conclusions, or individual experiments.⁹

It has been assumed in the foregoing discussion that it is the teacher who chooses the excursion as her method of handling some subject, and takes upon herself the task of arousing the interest of the class in it, and of guiding the formulation of the precise ends which it is expected to meet; but it is the custom of many teachers to allow pupils, whenever it is possible, a share in such decisions and arrangements as are called for in preparing for it. Reference to Table 15 shows that three-fifths of the teachers who answer this

⁹ C. F. Hoban, "Visual Education and the School Journey," *Educational Monographs*, 1 16, 1930.

question make the determination of the purpose of an excursion a decision of teacher and class conjointly, but that nearly three-fourths of them decide upon it independently of the class. A very small number, slightly more than 2 per cent, place this choice in the hands of a class committee. The purpose of the excursion is, as might naturally be expected, more often decided by the teacher alone than is any other item involved in planning for it.

TABLE 15
EXTENT OF PUPILS' PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING EXCURSIONS

Authority Deciding	Number of Teachers Reporting							
	Purpose (353)		Type ¹ (374)		Specific Place ² (363)		Details ³ (425)	
	No	% ⁴	No	%	No	%	No	%
Teacher alone	258	73.1	110	29.4	151	41.6	219	51.5
Class and teacher	213	60.3	183	48.9	180	49.6	146	34.4
Class as a group	15	4.2	33	8.8	29	8.0	23	5.4
Class committee	8	2.3	18	4.8	25	6.9	28	6.6

¹ Excursions have been grouped into several categories, or "types," on the basis of their objectives. factory, store, country field trip, museum, etc.

² For instance, Macy's Store, as the objective of an excursion of the Department Store "type."

³ "Details" include such matters as the time for the excursion, rules governing general procedure and behavior, equipment, etc.

⁴ Percentages are based on the indicated number of replies to the different parts of question three.

Selection of particular type and place.—It is often possible to give considerable freedom to a class in deciding, according to the preference and convenience of the majority, what type of place shall be visited, and which particular one among a number available shall be selected as the specific objective.⁷ Pupils often share, also, in deciding upon the day and hour of the excursion, the place for assembling, regulations to be observed en route and during the visit, and various other details.

Suppose, for instance, that a class in science is studying the rock formations in the vicinity, and that it has been decided the class shall make an excursion for the purpose of securing first-hand acquaintances with them. The type of place to be visited, or more briefly, the type of the excursion, must next be decided upon. Shall it be a visit to a museum in which specimens of the rocks may be

⁷ J. M. Dillon, "Field Trips in Geography in the Elementary Schools," *The Thirty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, 32. 519-524, 1932

found, to a quarry, or perhaps to the site of some building excavations where they may be seen, or to outcroppings of strata in city parks or suburbs? Any of these places would provide the desired first-hand information. After teacher and class have discussed the advantages of the several types, they may arrive at the opinion that, all things considered, the visiting of a quarry might prove more satisfactory for their purpose than the museum or park trip. If there is more than one quarry which may be visited, another decision will be called for, the selection of the particular one which shall be made the specific objective of the proposed excursion.

Again suppose that a class in Elizabethan literature has realized the need for further knowledge of the life and dress of the period. Several different types of excursions would provide this: the actual costumes and furniture of the period might be accessible in a museum; a study of the paintings in some gallery would provide information; perhaps some loan exhibit, or reproductions of furniture and styles of dress, or of models of buildings, might be on display in a department store; or perhaps there is a timely production in town of a Shakespearean play which pupils might attend.

When different types of excursion, and several possible specific objectives are available to meet the recognized need, the selection from among them must be made by teacher, by pupils, or by some other individual or group. In the illustrations given above it is apparent that, although the teacher might prefer to choose alone the particular type and objective of the excursion which she considers best adapted to her purpose, she might also make the final decision a cooperative choice by herself and pupils, or even permit it to be made entirely by a class committee appointed for the purpose. Reference to Table 15 shows that the practice indicated in approximately half of the returns is for teachers and class to cooperate in choosing the type and the particular objective of an excursion (48.9 per cent and 49.6 per cent respectively), and that approximately three-tenths of the teachers choose, independently of the class, the type of excursion to be made, and a still larger proportion the specific objective (29.4 per cent and 41.6 per cent respectively). The practice of leaving the decision on these points in the hands of a committee of pupils is found in only a very small number of instances.

Planning the mechanical details.—Although the arrangement of certain details—such as the choice of the place and time of assembly, or the preparation of any rules or regulations to be observed during a visit—is left in the hands of a class committee more often than any of the other details, it is only in about 7 per cent of the returns that we find responsibility even for such points delegated entirely to a committee of pupils. About half of the teachers assume the sole charge of arranging details, and about a third divide responsibility with the class.

Many of the details are of a nature which makes it impossible for them to be attended to by pupils: (a) Obtaining authorization for an excursion from the school authorities, and making suitable arrangements for it with the appropriate officials of the organization which it is desired to have the class visit; (b) securing from parents written statement of their willingness to have children participate; (c) arranging for suitable transportation to and from the destination, and seeing to it that adequate provision has been made to cover the cost, these steps, some or all of which are involved in preparing for almost any excursion, are very largely a matter of administrative routine, and have been already discussed in connection with the administrative aspects of the excursion (Chapter II). Only rarely do pupils handle these.

Arrangements with authorities and with institution officials.—The school official empowered to authorize excursions will vary with the individual administrative organization of the school or school system. Often the principal will be the one to authorize a trip. The principal may also be the person who will make the necessary arrangements with the appropriate officials of the organization which it is planned to visit, but three-fourths of the reports made on this point (Table 11) showed the teacher either entirely or in part attending to that matter. The day and hour for the excursion, the duration of the visit, and the size of the group to participate are matters all of which may have to be decided according to the convenience of both organization and class, and will in addition be determined by the number for which transportation can be provided, by the cost to the pupils, and sometimes by various other factors. Learning just how much time will be needed for the visit; limiting the size of her group to a number

which can be accommodated; finding what provision is to be expected at the institution for pointing out and explaining processes or exhibits; and planning for such other items as are needed for any particular excursion,—these all require the teacher's attention.

It has been already seen in Chapter IV that over four-fifths of the group of schools supplying data make excursions during the school session, although about half of the schools report that excursions are made after school hours and on Saturdays. The particular day and hour for an excursion will, however, depend on local conditions—on the school schedule in part, and also on the time convenient for the institution to which the visit is to be made. More than half of the teachers report visits of less than an hour in duration; more than a fourth report visits of from 1 to 2 hours; and another fourth report a half-day spent in a visit (Table 16). Despite

TABLE 16
DURATION OF VISIT *

Duration	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Less than 1 hour	264	56.7
1-2 hours	128	27.5
A half day	128	27.5
A whole day	63	13.5
More than a day	13	2.8

* Based on 466 replies to Question 9 of the Teachers' Questionnaire.

the form of the question—"How long are pupils at the place visited?"—it is quite possible that some teachers in replying have had in mind the whole time spent on the excursion instead of the time occupied by the actual visit at its destination. In consequence it may well be that the difference in the actual practice of those marking the "Less than 1 hour" interval and those who marked the "1-2 hours" duration is less than the figures themselves might indicate. Excursions of a day or longer are relatively infrequent, but receive mention in somewhat more than 15 per cent of the returns. It must be noted that more than four-fifths of the teachers reported excursions of not more than two hours' duration. Some account of a few excursions of the longer variety has been given in Chapter III.

With the purpose of securing an idea of the number of pupils usually participating in an excursion, one section of the questionnaire called for the checking of the customary number on a list of size-groups expressed in units of 10. The group most frequently checked is that numbering between 21 and 30 pupils—checked by nearly half (48.6 per cent) of the teachers. The next smaller group, comprising from 11 to 20 pupils, ranks next. This is the usual size of an excursion group for about a fourth of the teachers. Approximately a fifth handle groups of from 31 to 40. Several teachers report groups running up to 50 and more, and some add a note explaining

TABLE 17
SIZE OF EXCURSION GROUP *

Number of Pupils	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
10 or under	25	5.8
11-20	108	25.2
21-30	208	48.6
31-40	88	20.6

* Based on 428 replies to Question 10 of Teachers' Questionnaire.

that the large groups are usually accompanied by more than one adult. The largest excursion group mentioned numbers 120 students. One questionnaire stated that from 60 to 130 pupils made excursions—but detailed information regarding these large groups is lacking. The small group—of 10 or fewer pupils—is somewhat of an exception, reported by only about 5 per cent of the teachers. Among the factors which influence the size of the group, some of the most important are undoubtedly: the size of the class; the voluntary or required character of the excursion; the limit in number imposed by transportation facilities, or by conditions which obtain at the destination; and last—but by no means least—the ability of pupils to meet the cost.

One inquiry on the questionnaire reads: "Do all the pupils in the class go on the excursion?" Of the total 469 replies to this question, 268 or 57.1 per cent are in affirmative; and 201 or 42.9 per cent state that participation is not obligatory. It is rather difficult to de-

termine just what causes prevent pupils from taking part in the excursions. Among four probable factors suggested on the questionnaire, the two which are apparently the most important are: other conflicting interests, and cost. Each of these is reported by, roughly, half of the teachers who responded (Table 18). These "conflicting interests" include outside work after school hours—sometimes "gainful," sometimes scholastic, athletics; music or dancing classes; club meetings; and many others. "Lack of interest" in excursions is assigned as a reason by 15 per cent of the teachers. It may perhaps be suspected that the correct percentage for this factor runs higher, for pupils are likely to devise other reasons for non-participation if the real cause is merely lack of interest! Parental objection to children's making excursions with their class are encountered much less fre-

TABLE 18
CAUSES OF NON-PARTICIPATION *

Reason Assigned	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Other conflicting interests	102	50.7
Cost	94	46.8
Lack of interest	31	15.4
Objection of parents	14	7.0

* Based on 207 replies to Question 8 of the Teachers' Questionnaire

quently than might be anticipated. This is given as a reason on 7 per cent of the papers. One might infer from this small percentage that tribute is due to the tact and skill with which teachers present to the parents the ideas for the proposed excursions and win their cooperation. In one instance a parent made his unwillingness to release the school from responsibility for the child's safety the ground of his refusal of permission to make an excursion. Other reasons given for the failure of pupils to participate are: illness, lack of means of transportation, limitation of the number which can be accommodated, and interference with class or school schedule. If only a part of a class make an excursion during the school session, leaving the remaining part in school, another detail offers itself for attention—that of devising suitable work for the children who remain. It may take considerable ingenuity to find work for them of suffi-

cient interest to counteract the "holiday feeling" which the situation itself produces, and to prevent the waste of many hours' time.

Securing parents' consent.—Another of the essentially administrative details which usually devolves upon the teacher is that of communicating with parents to inform them of the proposed excursion and to secure their written permission for pupils to take part in it. This written consent ought really to include a release of the school from responsibility in case a child should incur injury during a trip. The permission may be given in a letter written by a parent, or it may be obtained by the parent's signature to a printed form furnished by the school. If the latter is used, it may be made out in the form of a waiver releasing the school from responsibility for the pupil's safety in addition to granting permission for him to participate. In order to acquaint parents with the plan, it is well to send to them a letter describing the excursion program, explaining the method, giving an idea of the approximate cost, and of the need of making the school and school personnel exempt from liability for injuries. A letter similar in content to that given below has been used in one school for some time, and has proved a satisfactory means of enlisting the interest and support of parents.

My dear

(Parent's name)

Your (son, daughter) is enrolled in our

(Pupil's name)

(Subject)

class. We earnestly wish to make this course as valuable as possible, and we believe that the value can be increased by giving opportunity to pupils to acquire a first-hand acquaintance with places and objects about which we are studying. We are therefore offering to your (son, daughter) the opportunity of visiting, under our supervision, some of the buildings, museums, and other places of interest, where such first-hand knowledge can be obtained.

We hope for your cooperation in this study-plan, and ask you to give written permission for to take part in the proposed

(Pupil's name)

visits. Your permission for (him, her) to accompany us on any one occasion at a specified time does not imply that you are granting permission for (him, her) to take part in all the excursions that are planned—although we hope that you may be willing for (him, her) to share in all.

The only cost for the supervised visits will be that for transportation and, in some instances, for small incidental expenses. It is estimated that the total cost for all trips will not exceed \$. for the term.

If you are willing to let share in the supervised trips

(Pupil's name)

made by the class, will you please sign and return to me the accompanying waiver, without which the school authorities cannot allow any pupil to participate in any excursion

Yours very truly,

.....
(Teacher's signature)

No information is available in regard to the extent to which schools make a practice of requiring a parent's written permission for a child to make an excursion. Table 13 shows that about a third of the schools in the survey refuse to permit a child to make an excursion without a waiver from parents relinquishing any claim to indemnity for injuries which a child might sustain. Other means of protecting schools and teachers from liability for accidents and injuries were also considered in Chapter IV. It may be emphasized again that the question of protection—protection of children from accident and protection of schools from liability—is a most important one in its bearing on the future use of the excursion technique, and that these two related problems urgently invite further study.

Providing for transportation and for meeting expenses.—The practice of the surveyed schools in making one or another individual or group responsible for solving the problems involved in choosing and engaging means of transportation, and in taking measures to assure possession of funds sufficient to meet the costs, has been viewed already from the administrative angle (Table 14). Automobile, bus, and going on foot were mentioned as means of reaching the destination by 73, 51, and 61 per cent respectively of the schools. The expenses were apparently partly or wholly borne by pupils, as indicated by four-fifths of the teachers (Table 12); but the Board of Education, various community groups, and student organizations at times defrayed the cost, either totally or in part.

The principal, teacher, school superintendent, a Board of Education member, or some other official is usually responsible for arranging transportation. Often, however, the teacher will be the one to make plans for conveyance to and from the destination, and to see to it that appropriate measures have been taken to assure payment of the necessary expenses. These two problems run the whole gamut of difficulty according to the kind and conditions of an excursion. Often they do not even exist as problems; sometimes they are so

insurmountable as to compel the actual abandonment of a projected trip.

The teacher's personal preparation.—Many of the things which have been discussed in the preceding divisions of this section may be equally well regarded as constituting a part of the teacher's preparation for an excursion. In addition, however, she will doubtless need to make some special personal preparation. It is desirable, for instance, for her to be thoroughly familiar with the place to be visited. It is often advisable for her to cover the excursion itinerary in advance, perhaps employing the services of a guide. From the guide or from some other source, she may well receive new items of information, or have presented to her mind afresh, or from a different viewpoint, facts already known. These may suggest new materials which, if incorporated into the preparation of the pupils, might serve to increase their interest in the proposed excursion. Factors likely to interfere with the smooth running of the excursion may perhaps come to light during such a preliminary trip of the teacher, and measures may be taken to minimize or remove them.

The provision or preparation of particular materials for work is often an essential part of the preparation for an excursion. A pad for notes, with stiff back to make it easy to write upon while held in the hand, is usually indispensable. It is, of course, most often the teacher upon whom falls the responsibility of determining the equipment—notebooks, pencils, sketching materials, canvas, paints, measuring tape, hammers, topographic maps, bird-glasses, butterfly nets, pocket lenses, vascula, etc.—may be needed for collecting and carrying home the miscellaneous assortments of minerals, frogs' eggs, larvae, ferns, flowers, and what not, which may be the trophies of various trips. Photography can be made to add a great deal to the value of excursions: snapshots can catch and record many a scene that will aid much in later discussion of the excursion experiences.⁸ H. T. Straw, describing "A New Kind of Geographic Field Trip," discusses the use of topographic maps upon which students chart the route followed and locate the points visited.⁹ He recommends

⁸ A. G. Peterson, "An Adventure in Real Living," *Progressive Education*, 10: 154, 1933.

⁹ H. T. Straw, "A New Kind of Geographic Field Trip," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 12: 120-122, 1934.

the maps especially for geographical field trips made in order to observe physical features of the terrain or to trace the courses of streams and rivers.

Exactly the amount and kind of detail that can be entrusted to pupils will vary greatly with varying conditions of different excursions. But, no matter how much care of detail is delegated to others, it becomes ultimately the function of the teacher to be certain that every single item actually has been looked to properly, for the proper preparation of every minute detail is the thing which will in great measure make or mar the excursion.

It is of interest to find that teachers who voluntarily contribute on the questionnaires supplementary suggestions regarding excursions, warn again and again: "Make your plans definite. Know exactly what you are going to do." Nothing gives a teacher quite so profound a sense of helplessness as to find herself afield with some thirty or forty eager students, knowing (and perhaps also knowing that her students know) that the trip is doomed to partial or total failure because she has neglected to make her preparation for it sufficiently definite.

It has been suggested that teachers may find the use of a series of questions to put to themselves about a proposed excursion a helpful device in compelling them to be very specific and definite in their ideas on some essential points. Miss Harden, instructor at the Horace Mann School, lists the dozen questions below as convenient for the purpose, and any teacher can subdivide and multiply these to whatever extent she may feel inclined.

Harden's Question-List for Teachers

1. Is this the best choice of a place to visit to develop this particular piece of work?
2. What plans need to be made by the class to make this trip valuable to them?
3. Is reading material on this particular grade level available to help answer questions which will grow out of the trip?
4. Is the place too difficult to reach?
5. What is the best means of transportation?
6. How much time will be needed to make the visit worth while?
7. How much time will be consumed in reaching the destination?
8. What arrangements do I need to make with people outside of school?

9. What particular connections with other school subjects should be emphasized in this trip?
10. Will the children be upset emotionally by this trip?
11. Would other departments of the school be interested in using this excursion as a part of their regular work?
12. What are some of the related activities that may be expected to follow this excursion?¹⁰

It goes without saying that each lesson plan that includes material dealing with any aspect of the excursion needs the same definiteness of preparation as any other lesson plan. The value of the most definite preparation of every minute detail and for every contingency that can be anticipated can scarcely be overestimated.

Preparation of pupils.—A logical method of attacking the preparation of pupils who are to participate in an excursion would seem to be to discuss it with them in sufficient detail to give an insight into its purpose and some realization of its utility. To find more than four-fifths of the teachers using in their preparation a detailed class discussion (Table 19) is, therefore, what might be expected. In many cases teachers assign collateral reading, and give references that will

TABLE 19
PREPARATORY STUDY *

Method of Work	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Detailed class discussion	380	83.5
Assignment of topics for study	160	35.2
Assignment of library references	143	31.4
Planning of individual projects	94	20.7

* Based on 455 replies to Question 4 of Teachers' Questionnaire

take pupils to the library to find additional material. Special topics may be assigned either to individuals or to "committees" of pupils who will report to the class such facts of interest as may be found. About a third of the teachers mention assignment of library references, and assignment of library references as well as assignment of special topics for study as a part of the preparation for an excursion.

¹⁰ M. Harden, "Going Places and Seeing Things," *Educational Method*, 14: 328, 1935

Special topics assigned to single pupils may be developed as individual projects. About one-fifth of the teachers report the use of such projects in the course of preparing pupils to take an active, interested share in the excursion, instead of playing the role of mere passive participants.

By way of illustration, suppose that a class is studying Gothic architecture as expressed in the great cathedrals of the Middle Ages. An introduction to some of the famous cathedrals, suitably illustrated by photographs or slides, may lead to a discussion of their relation to the life of the medieval towns, of the decades and centuries of work expended on them, of the structural features, and of the skill of the masons and stone carvers. Mention of the fact that certain Gothic features are to be found in local modern churches may lead to planning an excursion to one or more of these. Probably both teacher and class will need to do reading on the subject in addition to that which is perhaps contained in the textbook. Some detailed study must be made of important characteristics, so that pupils will be prepared to recognize the typical Gothic features when they are met with—the ribbed vaulting, the flying buttresses with their gargoyles and pinnacles, the windows with their tracery and stained glass, the sculpture, and ornament. Both teacher and pupils, from previous acquaintance with different churches, may be able to point out some of the Gothic traits which they have observed, although perhaps observed without being able to name or to place them. Reading references would include available printed material on the architecture of the churches to be visited.

Topics assigned for report in class might include a comparison of the Romanesque and Gothic styles, the effect of the device of the flying buttress on the treatment of the wall space, the making of a stained glass window, a comparison of plate and bar tracery, the use of religious symbolism, or the free play given to fancy by the stone carvers in working out ornamental details of gargoyles and capitals. If individual projects are to be used, diagrams of floor plans of different cathedrals might be made and compared, or a simple model constructed, or a design suitable for a rose window drawn, or a collection of photographs assembled, either of general views or of special details, such as facades, chevets, or porches.

If the special topics are assigned to small groups or committees to report on, each of these may be made responsible for planning some particular part of the excursion. An account of an excursion made by a class in the Speyer Experimental Junior High School, in New York, may serve as a good illustration of this method.¹¹ The class was to make an excursion to the American Museum of Natural History to study the sperm whale. Six committees were made responsible for the planning, with, of course, suggestions from the teacher and from the class. One committee studied means of transportation and cost, and made the necessary arrangements; a second looked up references on the natural history of the whale, and reported on it to the class; two others studied and reported on different aspects of the whaling industry in New England a century ago; a fifth committee was appointed to find out from what sources the museum exhibits are obtained, and what processes are involved in the mounting of specimens; and the sixth looked up and read books and stories in which the whale figured in any important fashion. All of these committee reports naturally served to provoke much interest and discussion, and to prepare the class for keener observation and more intelligent appreciation of the exhibits seen when the excursion was ultimately made. Perhaps the whole purpose of the preparatory study for an excursion can be no better stated than in the expression of the preceding sentence—that it must prepare pupils to observe more keenly and to appreciate more intelligently than would be possible for them to do without having had it.

CONDUCTING THE EXCURSION

The travel period.—The activities engaged in during the trip to and from the destination are perhaps subject to more varying and varied conditions than any other period of an excursion. The distance of the destination, the time required to reach it, the size of the excursion group, and—very important—the means of transportation used, these are but a few of the more obvious factors which will limit the range of choice regarding the best use to make of the travel time. No inquiry on the teachers' questionnaire dealt specifi-

¹¹ T. H. Biggs, "The Excursion as a Means of Education," *Teachers College Record*, 22: 416-417, 1921.

cally with plans for the utilization of this time, but occasionally teachers volunteer comments on the point. Similar brief statements regarding it are sometimes encountered also in descriptions of excursions that have been given in detail in the journals, and mention may be briefly made here of some of the views which are held. Perhaps the sole factor which remains in some degree constant under almost any conditions is the opportunity which the journey affords the teacher to become better acquainted with her pupils through the informal interchange of conversation to which the occasion lends itself. Although even this opportunity is sometimes offered in only a slight degree, it is practically always present in some measure.

Sometimes the journey is made a period of study and final preparation; sometimes it is wholly a period of recreation and leisure. If the route lies through new and interesting countryside, some teachers point out things which are worthy of note, and tell something about them, perhaps with the purpose of relieving the tedium of a long trip. Others make the trip a sight-seeing tour, and maintain much the same discipline as in the classroom. Discipline during the journey presents at times a somewhat difficult problem. One teacher stated that she aimed to make conduct during the travelling "orderly, restful, yet enjoyable." Certainly no one would take issue with her purpose, yet many would be deeply perplexed as to the best means of realizing it!

Consideration of the behavior problems of the journey may well be made at times an important part of the preparation for the excursion. It is, furthermore, one item for which a large share of responsibility can be handed over to the pupils themselves.

It is often noted that students respond to a period of relative freedom during the trip by an increased readiness to settle down to work when the destination is reached. If necessary for pupils to do considerable walking—as it is on many field trips—it may be well to walk first to one of the more distant points in order to give outlet for some of the superfluous energies and spirits which so easily take the form in all sorts of pranks. But the problem of conduct on the trip is practically always dependent on so many factors that its details must be settled afresh for every new excursion according to the circumstances which it presents.

Study procedure at destination.—Question 5 on the teachers' questionnaire is concerned with the procedure followed in handling excursion groups during the time that they are actually engaged in the observation and study of the exhibits or processes which it has been arranged for them to see. Two of the particular points on which information was sought are: first, the extent to which teachers utilize the services of the professional guides and lecturers at the museums and other places at which they are to be found; and, second, the amount of guidance which they themselves give to their classes during the visit. Reference to Table 20 shows that three-fourths of the teachers make use of official guides on occasion, and that more than half of them indicate that they make the necessary explanations themselves. Which they do is undoubtedly dependent in part upon the opportunity to secure guides at the places visited. Such guides usually act as lecturer for all visiting groups, and are of course likely to be better informed regarding numerous details than the teacher,

TABLE 20
STUDY PROCEDURE AT THE PLACE VISITED *

Procedure	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Explanation of things of interest made by special guide	354	75.6
Explanation given by teachers themselves	266	56.8
Pupils allowed freedom to select what they individually wish to see	154	32.9
Guide-sheets provided by teacher to aid in selection of exhibits to be studied	85	18.2

* Based on 468 replies to Question 5 of Teachers' Questionnaire.

and therefore, from the standpoint of actual knowledge, better equipped than another to give explanations of what they are displaying. Teachers very often find, however, that the professional guide cannot adequately meet the needs of a high school group because he knows neither the things in which the students are particularly interested nor the preparation which has been made for the visit. One teacher wrote: "I find that guides and lay speakers are often unable to put over their knowledge through lack of experience in this job, but careful discussion of the objective with a

guide by the teacher helps a good deal." And another made the following comment: "Usually guides are too technical and talk over youngsters' heads. Often they show too much for one trip. Probably it would be better if a small committee could visit the plant in advance of the large group." It might seem therefore as if a conference between teacher and guide prior to the excursion may be looked upon as a desirable detail to include among the preparations for an excursion.

The teacher herself, possessed of full knowledge of the students' background and needs, should, if sufficiently well informed, make a more satisfactory conductor than the professional guide, but it is demanding too much to ask of a teacher that she equip herself to serve as guide in all of the fields which she may wish to explore with her class. Explanations of manufacturing processes, of factory workers' specialized skills and functions, of the uses of different parts in public buildings, of points of interest in a legislative session, and of various museum exhibits—of art, science, industry—explanations of all of these things would require far more diversified and detailed information than is usually possible for any one individual to acquire. It is therefore an advantage to rely, at least in part, on the professional guide; and, by means of judicious questions addressed to the guide, the teacher can often direct his explanations to the matters which she particularly wishes to have emphasized. Suitable guidance for school groups is more and more becoming recognized as a specialized field in itself. Some of the German universities began long ago to offer courses for persons interested in museum instruction and in specific fields of guidance—historical, archaeological, architectural, and other—and some of the larger museums in this country are now opening to teachers certain lectures and courses which are presented with the direct object of preparing them to guide their pupils advantageously through their various collections.

Quite different from focusing pupils' attention deliberately upon things which have been for a particular purpose especially selected for them to become acquainted with, is the practice—mentioned by approximately a third of the teachers—of merely "exposing" them to certain conditions, and granting them freedom to observe whatever interests them. Teachers seem to find that this kind of attempt

to allow opportunity for individual interests to develop and to be gratified often fails of its end because pupils' inexperience prevents them from getting so much out of an excursion under these conditions as they get when their attention is definitely directed. Although such free wandering among the collections of our great museums may exert untold influence in stimulating and broadening a child's interests during his formative years, it seems of questionable value to devote school time to what should really be a leisure-time recreation. It has been suggested that museum excursions of the freer variety might advantageously be devoted to training pupils in how to choose what they wish to see by providing them with the kind of assistance which some sort of annotated guide-sheet might give. The use of such helps is not so common as it deserves to be, for less than a fifth of the teachers indicate that they prepare guide-sheets for their pupils.

Students are encouraged to ask questions during the visit, and these may be of real aid to the alert guide or teacher in revealing the direction of their interests and the things which need more adequate explanation. It is a real art to balance freedom to question against the necessity of not breaking the course of an explanation or permitting the time of the group to be encroached upon for the discussion of purely personal interests. Many questions may usually be answered while the group is passing from one exhibit to another.

In marked contrast to the rather passive type of experience illustrated by the personally conducted museum excursion, stands the active type, illustrated by a typical field trip, usually an excursion in which the pupils take a very active share. Such trips provide real opportunities for pupils to develop initiative and to pursue in some measure their personal interests. One boy, after taking part in an excursion in search of Indian relics, developed so keen an interest in them that he decided to make a collection of his own. Fortune favored him, and not only did persistent pursuit of his hobby reward him with numerous valuable finds, but friends also made contributions, until in a surprisingly short time he found himself possessed of a collection which might well be the envy of many a collector who has devoted years to gathering his specimens. Scientific field trips are fruitful sources of interest in collecting, and many collections,

whether of plants, of minerals, or of butterflies, date their origin from some such excursion. Other types of excursions, although often seemingly quite different, will usually provide either the "passive" or the "active" experience at the place visited.

RETROSPECTIVE USE OF EXCURSIONS

So far as may be judged from the returns, the consensus of opinion seems to consider it quite essential to follow up the excursion in some very definite manner if its maximum value is to be attained. Not many more than a tenth of the questionnaires mention excursions which are not followed by some sort of retrospective survey. There may, of course, be excursions so complete in themselves that any later discussion would tend rather to detract from than to add to their value, but these are apparently few, for nine-tenths of the teachers indicate one or more customary procedures for summarizing and emphasizing facts of importance.

TABLE 21
RETROSPECTIVE STUDY OF THE EXCURSION *

Method of Work	Teachers Reporting	
	Number	Per Cent
Class discussion	325	69.3
Oral reports	170	36.2
Tests covering information gained	131	27.9
Written reports or stories	121	25.8
Individual projects	66	14.1
No mention made of excursion	54	11.5

* Based on 469 replies to Question 6 of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The procedures will of course be similar to those followed in preparing pupils for the excursion, similar to the methods likely to be used in teaching any subject. Just as four-fifths of the teachers use the class discussion in preparing for the excursion, so do over two-thirds of them again mention class discussion as a part of its after-study. The discussion now takes the form of additional explanations of matters of special interest and importance, the answering of any unanswered questions which have arisen in pupils' minds during the trip or afterwards, and the summing up of the significant facts

learned from the excursion. It sometimes includes discussion of topics assigned previous to the excursion, or the answering of a list of questions given to pupils to take along with them to guide their observations.

Oral reports are required by approximately a third of the teachers—just as oral reports on assigned topics were made a part of the preparation by about the same proportion of teachers. In cases in which students were allowed to choose for themselves or had assigned to them in advance particular exhibits for their own special study, such oral reports constitute a means of presenting the observations on them to the class as a whole.

Somewhat more than a fourth of the teachers follow the excursion by a test, the use of which is, in itself, an indication that the acquisition of definite knowledge is expected to be one result of the excursion. To those accustomed to think of the excursion as a loosely organized trip meant to stimulate a pleasurable interest, rather than as an instructional technique designed to contribute accurate knowledge, it may be a surprise to find so many teachers testing the knowledge gained from it. Opinion is divided on the using of tests after an excursion, one teacher criticizing it as "a destroyer of interest." In some instances the test questions used were those given to the students in advance of the excursion to guide their observation.

Written reports on excursions are required by a fourth of the teachers. Several of them, in commenting upon this particular method of after-study, express the belief that the written summary of the experience is a particularly good means of inducing students to assemble and organize their knowledge. Others believe that written reports add little or nothing, and are in some cases unnecessary or even harmful. The written work required after an excursion may take the form of compositions on special aspects of it, letters of appreciation for courtesies received during a visit, accounts of a trip for the school paper, or preparation of material in a form suitable for use in assembly programs. In *Child Life and the Curriculum*, Meriam has considered in some detail the value of written work as a part of the after-study of an excursion.¹²

¹² J. L. Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum*, pp. 375-376 1920.

The use of individual projects as a sequel of excursions is not extensive. Fourteen per cent of teachers require them, and others recommend but do not insist upon them. The individual reports and projects are of especial value to teachers who handle the excursion for the most part on an individual basis, requiring little uniformity in the work of the class as a group.

Whatever may be the nature of the attention given to the excursion in retrospect, the fact that nine-tenths of the questionnaires mention one or more methods used in its after-study seems a sufficient indication that such study is generally regarded as a vital part of the excursion technique.

SUMMARY

The discussion of the excursion as a teaching technique has been based upon (1) descriptive and analytic material in the literature, and (2) a questionnaire study of practices current among those using it.

Schools or teachers desiring to introduce an excursion program will find much help from a preliminary survey, made either by individuals or by groups, of opportunities for excursions in their community or vicinity. From a list assembled in such a manner, each teacher will choose the particular excursions which meet her purpose, and will incorporate into her "technique," or "way of carrying out an excursion," the particular procedures which the type of excursion and the local conditions seem to demand. Justification for the inclusion of an excursion in a program is in proportion to the amount which it can contribute to the course or unit of which it is to be made an integral part.

The successful planning and preparation for any excursion involves attention to multifarious details. The preparatory study by the class, and their retrospective study of the excursion, are in general handled in the same manner as any other method—by class discussion, reference readings, reports on assigned topics, individual projects, or any other means suitable to the subject and the group. Careful preparation of the teacher herself regarding all details of the proposed trip is presupposed.

Study at the destination of an excursion group is frequently left

in part in the hands of official guides when their services are available; but teachers who can become equally well informed regarding the exhibits or processes which are to be observed at a museum or industrial plant possess an advantage over the regular guides by reason of their knowledge of the pupils' preparation, interests, and capacity for understanding.

Although many of the procedures followed in developing and using an excursion technique are similar for a majority of excursions and are in use by a majority of teachers, the success of a technique for any individual teacher will depend upon her skill in selecting and combining the procedures best adapted to her special needs.

Chapter VI

EVALUATION OF SCHOOL EXCURSION TECHNIQUE

IT IS easy for the excursion enthusiast to lay claim to great and varied values for his technique, but until that technique can be evaluated so as to be proved superior, his claims are always subject to doubt. It is not enough to trace the development of the excursion method, to indicate its present usage, and to suggest ways in which it may be applied, unless one takes the final step of endeavoring to show how the value of that method may be tested. The greater the variety of ways in which the excursion technique can be evaluated, the greater the amount of evidence which can be gathered for it, the more sure we are of its value in teaching. The present chapter presents evidence obtained through various measuring devices which have been used to show its worth as a teaching technique.

A study of the values attributed to the method may be made through several channels: (1) judgments of its value formed by those who have used it, encountered in the general literature on the subject or discovered through particular studies made for the purpose; (2) the results of tests, projects, recitations, and other means which teachers have employed as means to obtain some satisfactory evidence of its good results; (3) experimental studies such as those made by Grinstead in Pasadena, Calif., or by the present writer in White Plains, N. Y.

JUDGMENTS OF VALUE

Judgments in the literature, and their foundations.—Almost every article written upon the excursion technique contains mention of some of the advantages which it is thought to possess. Such advantages are in the majority of cases expressions of the writers' opinions, which have been derived from some personal experience. Some articles contain long lists of values believed to be inherent in the procedure; others discuss values incidental to the main purpose

of the article. The statements are often expressed in very general and comprehensive terms; occasionally they are specific and detailed. Statements which are quoted in the following pages have been selected from half a dozen widely different sources, all of them authoritative. These statements are not statements of proved fact, but rather of impressions, of hypotheses which educators believe to be true. They represent a well-known educator, who in his capacity of high school administrator, has given encouragement to the use of the excursion method; authors who are regarded as authorities on the use of the excursion in Germany; a teacher who has had long experience with the method; a research student of the technique; a school committee which undertook a survey of the results of the excursions made by schools in a city system; and various other educators who have experimented with it.

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, has evaluated the excursion in relation to the purposes of education. His experience with the excursion as a former principal of the Speyer Experimental Junior High School in New York and his keen interest in methods of education place him in a strategic position from which to evaluate the excursion as a teaching technique. He writes:

The activities of a school are determined by its purposes. If these are to teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway and to reveal higher activities, at the same time making them desired and to an extent possible, then the excursion becomes important. By it the school is enabled to acquaint pupils with the various museums, memorials, industries, and natural phenomena of a community, thus making them intelligent concerning their environment and widening in a systematic way their interests. At the same time it is enabled to enrich various courses and to motivate work. The excursion furnishes a series of projects which offer unsurpassed opportunities for initiative, cooperation and the judging of relative values.

One test of the value of such excursions is the repetition of the trips by pupils on Saturdays or Sundays and during their vacations. Inquiry shows that many of the boys have gone again and that frequently they have taken friends with them. Experience leads the teachers to conclude that the excursions are valuable as a means of enriching and extending the ordinary work of the school and as a stimulus to interested, intelligent and varied cooperative effort. They acquaint pupils with their community; they initiate them with resulting "satisfactions" into desirable activities that they should perform again and again, and they furnish the best of opportunities for initiative, self-direction and cooperation. A little ingenuity will enable a teacher in any

community to arrange excursions or field trips to accessible objectives that will contribute greatly to the real education of pupils¹

Alexander and Parker, who have made an extensive and careful study of the use of the excursion in Germany, find that:

School trips help to fulfill the social aims of closer comradeship between the teachers and pupils, group cooperation within the class and school, and the spiritual unification of the people of the nation. Trips that begin in the immediate neighborhood and extend their scope gradually to the whole country, are excellent means for acquainting younger pupils and older students with their environment, and fostering permanent interest in native culture. First-hand experience that comes through the eyes and ears of the pupils is a surer means of broadening their knowledge than the reading of many books. Much is learned incidentally on all these journeys and certain occasions, requiring systematic preparation, make the pupils responsible in a practical way for many kinds of information useful then and later.²

The difficulties in the way of analyzing the results of the excursion procedure and of estimating its value have been set forth by Mary E. Reese, who feels that, although many values may not be discoverable through the usual means of measurement, some of them are clearly apparent in the reactions of the children after a trip. Miss Reese writes:

It is difficult to check the worth of the excursion to the pupils because there are so many different phases to it and so many intangible values. A spontaneous enthusiasm, an awakened interest, an investigative attitude, a desire for further research are all the direct result, for they follow immediately upon and are sufficient reason for the excursion.

Aesthetic appreciation is particularly developed and enhanced by these trips. Children have a gratifying and immediate reaction after visits to picture galleries, art, and interior decorating studios, and this reaction of the children is the best check-up on the value of the excursion.

Often the enthusiasm carries over and the children express the desire to preserve the memory of the excursion by starting a class museum, mounting and arranging specimens and trophies, keeping class and individual specimen books, keeping a class log and individual diaries.³

R. H. Price, Principal of the Junior High School of the State Teachers College in Whitewater, Wisconsin, lists and explains five

¹ T. H. Briggs, "The Excursion as a Means of Education," *Teachers College Record*, 22: 415, 419. 1921.

² T. Alexander and B. Parker, *The New Education in the German Republic*, p. 66. 1929.

³ M. E. Reese, "Excursions for Pupils in the Typical Urban or Rural Community," *Educational Method*, 14: 198, 199. 1935

values of the excursion based on "observation, on experience in taking children on trips, and on a reflective consideration of the values of such activities." His own knowledge of the excursion extends far beyond a mere casual acquaintance with the method, for his study, cited in preceding chapters, has contributed much information regarding the character, frequency and relative value of excursions which have been made to places of many different types. Price makes the following claims:

1. Trips provide a means of enriching the experiences of the pupils
2. Trips provide experiences out of which school activities become more meaningful.
3. Trips provide an opportunity for children to explore the world about them and to broaden their interest under expert teacher guidance
4. Trips are a source of information for children, information directly obtained. Seeing a thing first-hand, hearing the noises of machinery, feeling the heat of the furnaces, and smelling the odors of the plants is a quite different proposition from reading about them or seeing still or moving pictures of them
5. . . trips . . . always (offer) a real opportunity for choosing, purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating on the part of the pupils⁴

A committee which surveyed the schools of Philadelphia for their use of the excursion procedure, and endeavored to form an estimate of its value from a rather careful study of some fifty schools, stated in the report on its findings the belief that the excursion:

. . . enables the pupils to satisfy their desire to understand their environment; it enables pupils to have experiences in planning and mapping out real activities and learning how to work together; it supplements the work of the school enabling the pupils to perform desirable activities better and with more satisfaction than they could have performed them alone. It gives experience and real opportunity to evaluate, organize and express thought. Because of its satisfying quality it leads on to more activity in the same field.⁵

One of the more carefully formulated lists of values, based in part upon experimental results, has been made by R. W. Grinstead, working in collaboration with Professor C. C. Crawford of the University of Southern California. His list is quoted in full:

⁴ R. H. Price, "A Study of the Value of Field Trips," *The National Elementary Principal*, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 13: 304 1934.

⁵ Pennsylvania. Department of Public Instruction, *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Philadelphia*, Book IV, p 157. 1922.

- 1 The excursions are of more interest to the students than are the more bookish types of classroom procedure.
2. They give education a decidedly practical direction since they involve a study of the realities of life. In other words they help to bridge the gulf between the school and the world in which we live.
- 3 Well chosen trips afford valuable vocational or educational guidances by offering students a chance to explore and become acquainted with a wide range of occupational activities.
- 4 The excursions provide a useful fund of experience and mental imagery for the interpretation of the abstract materials of books.
- 5 A single excursion may provide experiences which will be of value in the understanding of a number of different subjects besides the one of which the excursion was a part.
6. The trips stimulate children to read in order to find out more about points in which interest has been aroused during the excursion.
7. They arouse interest which leads to valuable industrial explorations by students outside of school hours. Several pupils reported that they went on numbers of such trips in company with their parents after having discovered the idea through the school excursion.⁶

Judgments of value studied by questionnaire method.—Setting out from an analysis of the judgments of value found in the literature, the present writer included in a questionnaire study of the excursion one item designed to discover, if possible, which values are commonly held by teachers to be the most important. A list of ten values which were very frequently claimed for it was presented to teachers with a request that they check the five of these which they considered to represent the highest values, and number these five in the order of their importance. It had been no easy task to select and compile from the literature a representative list of such statements. A tentative list was chosen, submitted to a number of principals and teachers for criticism, and modified on the basis of their suggestions. The revised list finally used on the Teachers' Questionnaire consists of the statements—here rearranged in order of the frequency of their choice on the returns—that the excursion:

1. Awakens interest and appreciation in the field being studied and related fields
- 2 Provides for concrete, first-hand experiences which result in a direct and personal knowledge of the environment.
3. Develops keenness and accuracy of observation

⁶ C. C. Crawford and R. W. Grinstead, "The Use of the Excursion in Teaching Commercial Geography," *Journal of Geography*, 29. 303-304. 1930.

4. Secures longer retention of knowledge
5. Utilizes the natural curiosity of pupils and makes possible the joy of discovery.
6. Provides opportunity for development of a vocational interest
7. Provides opportunity for a pupil to become a responsible member of a definite group through which he learns to think, plan, execute, and evaluate in terms of a group as well as in terms of his own interests
8. Promotes an understanding between teachers and members of the group.
9. Contributes to development of leisure-time activities.
10. Gives opportunity for expression of initiative and the development of leadership

A blank space following No. 10 was left for any record which teachers might wish to make of values which seemed to them important that had not been included in the list of ten.

The data on this item of the questionnaire are shown in Table 22. Nearly all (97 per cent) of the 476 teachers who answered the questionnaire checked the statement that the excursion "awakens interest and appreciation in the field being studied and in related fields." Sixty per cent ranked it 1 or 2. Such agreement leaves no room for doubt that the group of teachers is convinced that the excursion is of especial value in arousing interest in the immediate subject-matter under consideration and that this interest carries over to related fields.

The statement that the excursion "provides for concrete, first-hand experiences, which result in a direct and personal knowledge of the environment" is checked by the second largest total number of the teachers. This value was given rank 1 by a larger number of teachers than was any other on the list, and was chosen as either 1 or 2 by more than 60 per cent. The consensus of opinion thus accords first rank to one or the other of the above statements, but apparently rates the two as of substantially equal value.

The statement that the excursion "develops keenness and accuracy of observation" holds third place from the standpoint of the total frequency with which it was checked, and it is included in the group of the first five by nearly 70 per cent of the teachers. But it is nevertheless separated by a wide gap from the first two choices in that it is selected by approximately 25 per cent fewer teachers than are the first two.

Statement 4, that the excursion "secures longer retention of

TABLE 22

TEACHERS' JUDGMENTS OF EXCURSION VALUES *

Statement of Value	Percentage of Frequency of Choice					Unranked	Total
	Ranked						
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Awakens interest and appreciation in the field being studied and in related fields	28.2	32.4	13.0	7.4	3.4	13.4	97.7
2. Provides for concrete, first-hand experiences which result in a direct and personal knowledge of the environment.	45.0	15.8	7.1	5.9	4.6	12.6	91.0
3. Develops keenness and accuracy of observation	1.9	10.9	16.2	16.0	13.0	11.1	69.1
4. Secures longer retention of knowledge	2.9	11.3	19.3	13.7	8.6	9.9	65.8
5. Utilizes the natural curiosity of pupils and makes possible the joy of discovery.	2.5	2.9	10.7	13.7	16.8	9.5	56.1
6. Provides opportunity for development of a vocational interest.	1.9	5.0	8.2	9.7	14.1	6.3	45.2
7. Provides opportunity for a pupil to become a responsible member of a definite group through which he learns to think, plan, execute, and evaluate in terms of a group as well as in terms of his own interests	4.8	6.9	5.0	4.8	6.3	5.3	33.2
8. Promotes an understanding between teachers and members of the group.	.4	2.1	3.2	6.3	10.7	6.9	29.6
9. Contributes to development of leisure-time activities.	1.5	2.5	2.9	8.0	5.0	5.5	25.4
10. Gives opportunity for expression of initiative and the development of leadership.	1.1	1.9	3.4	3.2	3.8	4.4	17.6

* The totals include both the number of teachers who ranked the five choices as requested and the number who merely checked without ranking them. Percentages are based on 476 replies to Question 2 of the Teachers' Questionnaire.

knowledge," is checked by the fourth largest number of teachers. But, although better retention is recognized as one important contribution of the excursion, the very fact that increase of factual knowledge is so far from being considered its greatest value seems to point to the utilization of the excursion primarily for the sake of the interest which can be so readily stirred by first-hand experience.

The statement that the excursion "utilizes the natural curiosity of the pupil and makes possible the joy of discovery" is checked on 56 per cent of the returns. The selection of this value seems to imply teachers' recognition of the fact that it meets a psychological need experienced perhaps most strongly during the years of adolescence. The excursion satisfies the normal urge of youth to set forth to explore the environment in quest of immediate experience rather than to depend upon the experiences of the classroom—a makeshift substitute at best!

Ranks 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are thus seen to be accorded to statements numbered 3, 1, 5, 6, 9 respectively on the questionnaire. Ranks 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 represent, similarly, statements 10, 2, 8, 7, 4 on the questionnaire. Each of these items is checked by less than half of the teachers. Statements 6 and 7, as in the case of the first statement, refer to the excursion as a means of stimulating interest—this time, however, an interest carried over to a choice of a vocation and one which includes the group rather than remaining self-centered. Less frequently still is the development of a better mutual understanding between teacher and class selected as a value of the excursion, and the two statements least often checked are those referring to its value in contributing to the development of leisure-time activities and in providing opportunity for the exercise of initiative and leadership. It is possible that these last two values may have seemed to be in a measure linked up with other values which were listed, and that, when asked to limit their choice to five, teachers may have selected the broader general values.

In the space left blank after No. 10 for the addition of comments we find fifty-nine statements given by teachers, many of them so closely related to the ten statements of value except in verbal expression as to need no mention. Among the remaining comments is one to the effect that "the excursion gives practical experience, it

widens the horizon of subject-matter fields, and the environment of the place visited becomes a part of the school." Another, apparently with reference to some particular excursion, states that the excursion helped the pupil to see the subject which was studied as an interesting life experience rather than as an isolated school project. Others mention the fact that the excursion provided wider experiences, gave deeper understanding of the problems or tasks assigned by the teacher, and added increased reality to them.

A number of the comments referred to the influence of the excursion as a means of developing "a vocational interest." "The excursion," writes one teacher, "acquaints students with the actual procedure, and the working conditions found in factories." Another writes, "Pupils learn how it is done in books, see it done on excursions." And others: "The excursion shows the actual conditions people work under, gives vocational training and guidance through actual contact and participation"; and "It permits the opportunity for scheduling interviews between pupil and adviser or perhaps employer and is the connecting link between classroom and actual business." One teacher points out that the excursion is the only means of actually studying the latest methods in industry and business, and another that it develops an appreciation of the local industries in the town.

One teacher spoke of the excursion as a "builder of citizenship," a means of developing respect for law and order, and a valuable method in studying the administration of justice. Another would use the excursion to awaken interest in "local things and places," and to make the school a part of the community. One, in similar vein, suggested that by means of excursions the school and the community may become unified and a community spirit created. Another thought of the excursion as an opportunity to compare various stores, factories, sections of the city, and neighboring communities.

Evaluation of the school excursion subjectively—on the basis of judgments expressed in the literature or gathered experimentally—yields three useful results. For one thing, the values attributed to it in the literature indicate the vast extent of its supposedly desirable effects, which seem to include every possible value that could be claimed for any technique whatsoever. Among the numerous values

claimed for the excursion method we find satisfying psychological needs, providing actual contact with the world, stimulating interests, increasing information, developing desirable individual and social traits, and increasing loyalty to civic institutions

In the second place, there are certain values which, although varying in verbal form, find repeated expression by many different writers. An examination of the literature on the values claimed for the excursion not only reveals their wide range but shows further that certain ones among them recur continually. The sorting out of these values, and their statement in such form as to emphasize the central meaning which is so variously expressed, provides a list of values regarding which there would be little divergence of opinion. Such a list doubtless approximates accuracy far more closely than would a list of any single individual; it is, moreover a list which may be experimentally tested. Such is the character of the list which was submitted to teachers as a part of the questionnaire study.

And, thirdly, by making it the basis for an expression of teachers' judgments through their choice of the five "most important" values, we can form a somewhat definite idea of the relative values commonly assigned to the excursion technique in the minds of those who use it.

Objection to the use of an individual's judgment as a basis for evaluation is often made on the ground that the judgment has been experimentally shown to vary somewhat from time to time even in the absence of experiences which would definitely prejudice it. Granting this, we may doubt whether such fluctuations would be sufficient in degree to alter the relative positions of the rank given to the different values by a group of any considerable size. It might well happen that on some other occasions a number of teachers would select for first place a value other than that which they chose when answering the questionnaire. The differences, however, would scarcely be sufficient to reduce either of the first two choices to third rank or lower; and certainly the variations in individual judgments would never be sufficiently large to transpose the lowest-rated and the highest-rated values—values which represent a difference between 18 per cent and 98 per cent.

Another objection which may be raised is that submission of a

given list of values conditioned the replies by bringing to the minds of those who filled out the questionnaire certain values of which they would not have thought had they been asked merely to list values for themselves. There is no means of finding out how "suggestive" the list may have been, but it seems not unreasonable to believe that sufficient variety of choice was afforded by the carefully compiled values given, to enable teachers to select from among them such as they might have listed independently. Moreover, from the standpoint of providing data susceptible of satisfactory tabulation and interpretation, no doubt whatever can exist of the superiority of the form which was used.

Results of excursions as indicative of their value.—Another approach to the problem of gauging the value of the excursion technique was made by asking teachers to check on a given list the kind of results which they accepted as evidence of an excursion's worth. The answers are of course based on teachers' observations of the effects of excursions which they have conducted and not on any kind of actual measurement of the effects observed. Items on the list, rearranged in order of frequency of mention, are shown in Table 23, together with the total number of times they were indicated. Space was allowed for the addition of results other than those suggested, or for comment.

TABLE 23
RESULTS OF EXCURSIONS AS INDICATIVE OF THEIR VALUE *

Result	Teachers Relying on Each Result	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Increased interest in class discussions and daily work	394	84.2
2. Additional excursions made by individual pupils	240	51.3
3. Knowledge increased (as shown by tests)	187	40.0
4. Individual projects carried out	101	21.6
5. More books read	75	16 0

* Based on 468 replies to Question 7 of Teachers' Questionnaire.

More than four-fifths of the teachers accept the display of greater interest in class discussions and in school work in general as definite evidence that an excursion has been of real value. The item is checked by a third more teachers than is any other item. The additional com-

ments indicate that the interest is shown by the larger number of questions asked, by a more pertinent discussion of a topic, by requests for additional reading material, and by frequent reference to the experiences of the excursion. The acceptance of such a manifestation of increased interest as evidence of an excursion's value seems entirely consistent with teachers' assignment of highest rank in the list of ten values to the statement that "the school excursion awakens interest in the field being studied and in related fields"

A second outcome of an excursion which teachers consider concrete evidence of its value is pupils' voluntary undertaking of additional excursions. About an even half of the teachers replying check item 2 as acceptable evidence. Some teachers comment that after an excursion pupils often suggest places for additional excursions and are eager to aid in planning for them and carrying them out either alone or as members of a class group. It would be of interest to know just how many pupils are inspired to make additional excursions; but, whether the number be large or small, it has been sufficient to cause 50 per cent of teachers to check the item!

It was noted earlier that over a fourth of the teachers reported making use of tests in connection with the after-study of excursions. Tests apparently give results which are satisfactory indication of a real gain in information as a result of the excursion. Perhaps it is the results of such tests which form the foundation of teachers' choice of the statement that the excursion "secures a longer retention of knowledge" for the fourth rank among excursion values.

The fourth result, checked by a third of the teachers as evidence of the value of an excursion, is the carrying out of individual projects, projects such as the making of illustrated notebooks or of models. "Research studies," and the collecting of specimens or of newspaper articles and pictures, are added by teachers on some of the questionnaires as other examples of kinds of individual projects undertaken. One teacher reports the making of creative sketches by an art class following a visit to a gallery.

A fifth consequence that sometimes follows from the use of the excursion technique is an increase in the number of books read by pupils. This result, indicative of a stimulus toward independent, individual work, is closely tied up with that just mentioned—the

carrying out of individual projects. About a sixth of the teachers check this item as one to be relied on as concrete evidence of the worth of an excursion.

Other results accepted as evidence of an excursion's worth, together with further examples of their value, have been added by teachers. Chief among them is its influence on pupils' vocational choice. Teachers state that students have obtained positions in industrial plants in consequence of visits made to them with an excursion group, and that they have entered a business or profession as a direct result of some excursion experience. Excursions to factories, shops, farms are spoken of as having made pupils better able to arrange their own bench-work, or their own garden, as the case may be. Other results mentioned include: a broadened outlook, confidence, cooperation, ability to apply knowledge gained, and the birth of a new sense of group work in unsocial pupils. The desire of pupils in other classes, and even (in two instances) the requests of parents for the privilege of accompanying the excursion group, are cited as an indication of the recognized value of the excursion. Its "lasting" value is referred to by one teacher, who speaks of the fact that years later students recalled clearly certain experiences on excursions which had definitely stimulated them to further study.

A questionnaire study by Price⁷ attacked another aspect of the problem of excursion values—that of trying to estimate the relative values of excursions made to several different kinds of places. Price secured from 268 elementary school principals a rating on a four-point scale of the value of visits to ten places of various kinds. His findings are shown in Table 24.

The most significant fact revealed by this table is that not a single principal rated any excursion as of low value or no value. A larger number of principals agreed on the rating of visits to libraries as of "high" value than agreed on any other rating. This selection may have been due to the frequency of pupils' visits to the library in connection with their school subjects, or, perhaps, because the library is likely to become a particularly valuable source

⁷ R. H. Price, "A Study of the Value of Field Trips," *The National Elementary Principal*, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 13. 302-305, 1934.

TABLE 24

PRINCIPALS' RATINGS OF THE VALUE OF EXCURSIONS MADE TO PLACES
OF DIFFERENT CHARACTER*

Place Visited	Principal's Rating of Value			
	High	Medium	Low	None
Libraries	86.9	13.1	0	0
Museums	84.3	15.7	0	0
Rural industrial plants	84.2	15.8	0	0
Newspaper buildings	83.4	16.6	0	0
Banks	81.2	18.8	0	0
Commercial offices	81.0	19.0	0	0
Urban industrial establishments	80.5	19.5	0	0
Higher schools	80.0	20.0	0	0
Civic buildings	76.4	23.6	0	0
Parks	59.1	40.9	0	0

* Adapted from a study of 268 elementary schools, by R. H. Price

for informational and recreational opportunities in later life. The group opinion ranked excursions to museums second, and to rural industrial plants third, with only a shadow of difference between them; and visits to newspaper buildings are rated "high" by almost as great a percentage. A glance at the table shows that more than three-fourths of the principals rated "high" the excursions to every kind of place on the list except the last—parks. The marked drop in the percentage of those rating excursions to parks "high" may raise the question of the reasons which made park excursions seem to the principals of less value for elementary children than visits to any of the other places listed. Perhaps excursions to parks—usually associated in our minds more with recreation than with education—may appear to offer fewer educational opportunities than are offered by excursions to such other places as are listed. Or, were the principals perhaps thinking of the difficulty of keeping a class of children together in the park, and accomplishing very much real "work"? On the other hand Miss M. P. Stevens, in her *Activities Curriculum in the Primary Grades* (1931), recommends that young children should not be taken to such places as museums but should spend their time out of doors.

It would be of interest to know the basis of the judgments of values made by Price's principals. The opinions are probably based

in large part on their own personal experiences, or on observations of excursions in their schools.

GRINSTEAD'S PIONEER WORK IN EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

The first attempt to study by means of a scientifically controlled experiment the comparative values of the excursion technique and certain other teaching methods was made less than a decade ago by R. W. Grinstead in Washington Junior High School in Pasadena, California. Grinstead's purpose was to examine the value of the excursion as a pedagogical method, and at the same time to obtain light upon several incidental problems.⁸ Among the latter were included the following: (1) the comparative value of the excursion used as introductory lesson and as a final or summarizing lesson on a topic; (2) the comparative value of the excursion for large and for small groups; (3) its relative value for average and for superior children; (4) the influence of the method in decreasing the amount of school failure and the consequent per capita cost of education.

Four experiments—A, B, C, and D—were made during the course of the investigation. Each of them was made with children equated on the basis of intelligence, age, and grade. Home backgrounds of all were considered good. The groups of Experiments A and B were rotated, in order that the same number of excursions might be made by each. The pupils in Experiments C and D were matched, pupil against pupil. No initial tests of pupils' information about the experimental topics were applied before the experiment proper was begun because "it was desired that pupils should not be acquainted with the nature of the check to be used"; but "definite questions presented orally in the assignment (before the unit was studied) showed that no pupil had anything but a hazy general conception of the topic."

At the end of the experiment, tests prepared by teachers were given, and from the results of these the experimenter's conclusions were drawn. Grinstead tells us that the tests were constructed on the basis of: (a) notes made by the instructor when he first went through the plant—not only notes made from personal observations

⁸ R. W. Grinstead, "An Experimental Evaluation of the School Excursion," Master's Thesis presented at the University of Southern California, June 1929.

on matters of importance, but also notes which he made from the information contributed by the guides; (b) textbooks and reference material; (c) tests on each topic which the instructor had used previously with other classes. The tests included true-false, completion, multiple choice, and essay or short answer types, and, where practicable, drawing, and were designed to cover the important points of the topic as completely as possible. They were submitted to four other members of the Science Department for criticism, and were revised according to their suggestions. The tests were administered on the day following the excursion or the classroom study of the topic.

Experiments A and B were made with "bright" pupils, all of them showing I.Q.'s of 125 or more on the Terman Intelligence Group Test of Mental Ability. In Experiment A, the mean intelligence quotient for the eighteen pupils constituting Group I of the pairs was 137.1, and for Group II, 138.6. In this experiment the excursion, preceded only by a 15-minute assignment on the topic, was employed as an introductory lesson, and was used to motivate the discussion in the classroom which followed the trip.

In Experiment B, the I.Q.'s for the twenty-two pairs of Groups I and II were identical—137.5. In this experiment the excursion was used to summarize the subject after the study of the topic had been completed.

The excursions formed a part of the regular eighth year curriculum in commercial geography as organized for the experiment, and were made during the second half of the year. The procedures employed in teaching groups which studied the topics in the classroom were "of progressive and vitalized type. The teacher did his best to make the lessons as effective as possible by means of demonstrations, class experiments, films, and socialized class projects. Abundant library materials were available and were used freely."⁹ Equal amounts of time were spent on the topic by both groups, each lesson unit including a 15-minute assignment and either a two-hour study-recitation period or a two-hour excursion.

In Experiments A and B the groups were rotated, in order that

⁹C C Crawford and R. W. Grinstead, "The Use of the Excursion in Teaching Commercial Geography," *Journal of Geography*, 29 302, 1930.

the same number of excursions might be made by each. The experiments and their results are summarized briefly below.

EXPERIMENT A

Excursion Used as Introductory Lesson

Eighteen (Group I —Average I Q. 137.1)
pairs (Group II—Average I.Q. 138.6)

First Half

TOPIC—THE DAIRY INDUSTRY

Group I

Made excursion to dairy and ice cream
factory

Gain = 165 per cent

Group II

Discussed topic in class, and observed
a class demonstration of the processes
made by pupils

Second Half

TOPIC—MANUFACTURE OF WICKERWARE

Group I

Used in the classroom the "motion-
picture-discussion method."

Group II

Made excursion to a wicker furniture
factory

Gain = 53 per cent

EXPERIMENT B

Excursion Used to Summarize Topic

Twenty-two (Group I —Average I Q. 137.5)
pairs (Group II—Average I Q. 137.5)

First Half

TOPIC—THE MEAT PACKING INDUSTRY

Group I

Made excursion to packing house.
Gain = 73 per cent

Group II

Studied topic by the "library method"

Second Half

TOPIC—MANUFACTURE OF AUTOMOBILE TIRES

Group I

Used the "seminar method" in class
study.

Group II

Visited a tire factory.

Gain = 44 per cent

In Experiments C and D, Grinstead worked with groups of "average" pupils—"average" meaning here representative of all the commercial geography classes in the school. (This "average" class

is perhaps quite above the average of commercial geography classes or, for that matter, of so-called average classes in general, throughout the country.) The participating groups in these experiments were paired pupil against pupil on the basis of intelligence and school status. In Experiments C and D, the classes were not rotated, but were compared with equivalent groups.

For Experiment C, twenty-six "average" pupils who had accompanied the "bright" children on the excursion to the packing house were matched on the basis of intelligence quotients with children who had not gone on the excursion. The mean I.Q. of the combined groups was 109. The result was a gain of 27 per cent in favor of the excursion group.

In Experiment D fifty-six "average" pupils who went on the excursion to the tire factory were paired on intelligence quotients with pupils who had not gone on that excursion. The latter, chosen from several different classes having different teachers, had been taught by a variety of classroom methods. The mean I.Q. of the 112 pupils was 105. The result was a gain of 26 per cent in favor of the excursion group.

Grinstead gives his data careful statistical treatment. Comparison of the results of Experiments A and B with those of Experiments C and D shows that, although both "bright" and "average" children apparently derive much more profit from the use of the excursion method than from any of the classroom methods used in the study, the gain of the bright group is very much greater than that of the average group. It was in their responses to the essay type of questions included among the test items that the greatest improvement in the excursion groups, both for the bright and for the average children, was shown.

From a complicated analysis of the test items which were correctly answered in Experiment D, Grinstead finds that the 26 per cent gain which is shown in favor of the excursion group is sufficient to raise the marks of the weaker students to a passing grade, and from such finding he infers that the wider use of the excursion would reduce the amount of failure in school subjects and thus reduce the per capita cost of education.

The experimental coefficients for Experiment A and Experiment

B indicate that the chances are millions to one that the excursion method will yield better results than any classroom discussion method tried out in the study. "The available statistical tables," writes Grinstead, "only go up to chances of 3,400,000 to 1 and our differences here are larger than that."¹⁰

In reading critically Grinstead's detailed study, certain queries arise in one's mind. One of these concerns the basis for the construction of the tests. It is stated that one of the sources for the questions was the information contributed by guides at the time of the instructor's first visit to the plant which was to be made the object of a class excursion. This statement leads one to question whether or not any possible favoritism could have been unconsciously shown to the excursion procedure in the tests themselves. Possibly the criticism of the tests by four other members of the Science Department was a sufficient check to prevent such a source of error. Again, one finds it difficult to follow Grinstead all the way in his inference that "economy in education could be effected by a wider use of the excursion." The assumption underlying this seems to be that failure will be eliminated by raising the test marks of failing pupils. Pupils will therefore obtain promotion and reduce the number of terms spent in school, thereby, of course, correspondingly reducing taxpayers' expenditures for their education. Now the determination of the causes of failure in school subjects is an extremely complicated problem, and even the statistical material adduced by Grinstead on the causes of failure in the Pasadena schools seems scarcely to justify such a deduction.

In challenging some aspects of the procedure or the justifiability of a conclusion, one does not lose sight of the value of the experiment as a whole. Grinstead is pioneering in a new field, for the exploration of which appropriate techniques and means of measurement have not been devised. His experiment is with a method, a kind of experiment which involves numerous variables which cannot be controlled and which influence the experimental results to a degree difficult to estimate. He has attempted to set up an experiment with thoroughly scientific controls. His groups are carefully equated; they are taught by the same teacher; they use the same textbook

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 303.

and materials; the time devoted to a topic is the same in each. The tests were carefully prepared, include a variety of types, were submitted to criticism of the experimenter's colleagues, and revised on the basis of their suggestions. The conclusions are stated with great moderation in view of the overwhelming evidence in favor of the excursion method which the statistical treatment of the results indicates. The data of the experiment leave no doubt that the excursion increased the knowledge of both superior and average children by a much greater amount than any of the classroom methods used, and that the proportionate gain of the superior group was considerably greater than that of the average children.

Another important contribution of Grinstead's work is his emphasis upon other values that are quite as important to measure as is the increase in information which it gives. These point to the worth of the excursion in the development of interests, cooperation, constructive thinking, and desirable attitudes of work. His list of values is stated briefly, although the justification which he gives for each statement cannot be included:

1. Excursions assist the pupils' comprehension.
2. They bring about an increased interest in school work and a sustained interest in the topics studied.
3. Excursions clarify principles.
4. Excursions stimulate interest in natural and man-made things and situations.
5. They help children to organize their knowledge
6. They stimulate constructive thinking.
7. They constitute a cooperative enterprise.
8. They blend school life with the outside world.
9. They assist pupils to find themselves.
10. They enable or compel a teacher to conduct a more orderly and logical recitation
11. The excursion is more effective when limited to one class at a time.¹¹

Grinstead endeavored to measure these "non-statistical results," as he terms them, by a scheme of evaluating the opinions of the pupils who made the excursions. He examined critically such a method of evaluation, and based his opinion in part upon it and in part upon his own observations and those of others. Finding a

¹¹ R W Grinstead, *An Experimental Evaluation of the School Excursion*, pp. 91-2, 1929.

more definite means of measuring such skills, interests, attitudes, appreciations—whether by the excursion method or by any other method—is one of the urgent problems of education today.

ATYEO'S EXPERIMENTAL COMPARISON OF THE DISCUSSION AND EXCURSION TECHNIQUES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Two experiments were made by the writer to study the value of excursions to museums as compared with the so-called discussion method in increasing interest and knowledge in the field of history. Both experiments—distinguished as A and B—were carried out with the classes in ancient history in the high school at White Plains, New York. Two reasons determined the division of the study into two separate experiments: one was to make possible the division of the material in such manner as to permit an estimate of the reliability of the experiments through their comparison; and the other was to allow the grouping of the teaching units and tests into the two logical divisions in which they seemed naturally to belong.

Experiment A was begun during the second week of the fall school term of 1936, and was continued for four weeks (September 14—October 9 inclusive). Experiment B was begun immediately after the completion of A, and was likewise continued throughout four weeks (October 14—November 12 inclusive).

The experiments were conducted as a part of the regular class work, and the syllabus prepared by the State Department of Education was used as the basis for the subject-matter. It was intended in this manner to provide as nearly as possible a normal teaching situation, with conditions similar to those existing in any other class, and thus to make the conclusions of the study applicable to other classes working under like conditions.

Formation of the experimental classes.—All pupils who elected the ancient history course were regarded as potential subjects for the experimental classes. Three important preliminaries of the experiment were taken care of during the May and June preceding the scheduling of classes for the fall term in which the experiments were to be carried out: (1) recording the intelligence quotients; (2) securing the cooperation of parents; (3) obtaining achievement scores in ancient history.

The I.Q.'s were taken from the Terman Intelligence Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A, which had been administered during the year by the school psychologist.

A letter was sent to the parents of all pupils whose I.Q.'s had been obtained, explaining the proposed plan to select a group of pupils and place as many as possible in a special class which would make excursions to museums. It was made clear that the excursions would involve an expense for transportation which parents of the selected children would be asked to meet. The letters, with an addressed stamped envelope enclosed for reply, were mailed to parents with a request that they fill out and return immediately the permit and waiver attached to the letter if they were willing to have their child considered as a candidate for the excursion group. To parents who had not replied within two weeks, a card of reminder was sent. Pupils whose parents made no reply were dropped from the group of candidates for the experimental classes, as were also, of course, those whose parents replied to the letter requesting that the child be placed in regular classes and not in the excursion class.

To the group of pupils now remaining the writer administered the Cooperative Ancient History Test, Form 1935, constructed by Anderson and Lindquist, of the State University of Iowa. This test had been chosen after examination of several as the best one available to yield the achievement score in ancient history which was desired for pupils to be included in the experimental groups.

The majority of candidates for the experimental classes were sophomores entering from the junior high schools; the remainder were juniors, who were divided almost equally between the two experimental groups. For the most part, candidates came from upper middle class, and many from professional homes. Their ages ranged between fourteen and eighteen years. It is thus seen that the candidates represented similar academic groups (sophomores and juniors), similar age groups (14-18 years), and, as nearly as might be judged from the kind of community in which they lived, similar home environments; and that an intelligence quotient and a history achievement score were available for each. Moreover, the parents of all had given written consent to enrollment in a class which was to make excursions.

The obvious purpose of the careful selection which has been described was to permit the formation of two equated groups. It is believed that the especial care used in matching the groups has added materially to the value of the experiments as a means of comparing the two instructional methods. Such advantage, however, was gained at the cost of a sacrifice which does affect the experiment: every additional factor which was considered in pairing pupils brought about the elimination of some who might otherwise have been included in the experiment, more than half of the potential number (the total number enrolled in ancient history classes) being in this fashion ruled out.

Sixty-four pupils were ultimately chosen for the experimental classes and were matched on the basis of their I.Q.'s and history achievement scores. The choice of this particular number was made in part because of the limit to the number of pupils who could be satisfactorily paired, and in part because of the limit to the number who could be accommodated in the bus used for transportation. The pairs were divided into two groups, one pupil of each pair in each group. Group I, the Discussion Group, was scheduled for the sixth period of the day; and Group II, the Excursion Group, for the seventh (last) period. Group II was scheduled for the last period so that the class time might be included in the excursion. The two groups were scheduled in consecutive periods to preclude opportunity for pupils to discuss lessons or tests until after these had been presented in both classes. Both classes were taught by the same teacher.

At the end of the experiments it was found that complete records had been obtained for twenty-six pairs, six pairs being discarded because either one or both members had missed a part of the work which could not be made up or had failed to go on all the excursions. The results of the experiments are therefore based on the records made by the twenty-six rather than the thirty-two pairs selected for the two groups.

Equation of experimental classes on the basis of scores on intelligence and achievement tests.—Group I and Group II may be considered samples which are drawn from an infinite population of matched pairs, each "individual" of the population being one

TABLE 25

THE MATCHING "CHARACTERS" OF THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASSES

Matched Pair No	Intelligence Quotient		"Character" of Pair Diff. (d ₁)	History Achievement Scores		"Character" of Pair Diff. (d ₂)
	Group I	Group II		Group I	Group II	
1	134	133	1	25	30	-5
2	133	133	0	31	29	2
3	129	124	5	25	33	-8
4	126	126	0	28	27	1
5	126	122	4	24	34	-10
6	122	123	-1	24	20	4
7	122	120	2	9	12	-3
8	119	120	-1	14	7	7
9	119	118	1	8	17	-9
10	117	119	-2	20	18	2
11	116	117	-1	14	25	-11
12	116	115	1	19	26	-7
13	113	114	-1	14	13	1
14	112	111	1	7	11	-4
15	111	111	0	18	16	2
16	110	111	-1	17	7	10
17	110	108	2	12	12	0
18	108	105	3	19	24	-5
19	107	110	-3	23	9	14
20	107	107	0	10	10	0
21	106	108	-2	11	15	-4
22	105	100	5	7	19	-12
23	102	102	0	17	11	6
24	99	100	-1	19	8	11
25	94	92	2	17	13	4
26	90	90	0	7	12	-5

matched pair. From this hypothetical population, twenty-six individuals (matched pairs) have been selected at random, and the difference between the I.Q.'s of the members of each pair has been taken as a "character" of the pair. (See Table 25.) We have therefore "twenty-six differences," for which the mean and the standard error must be computed. The calculations are based on the hypothesis that the sample of twenty-six pairs is a random sampling of all matched pairs of the population; that the mean of the differences between the members of all matched pairs divided by the standard error of the differences would be zero; and that any obtained differences are due to errors of sampling alone. It must therefore first be asked whether the sample in hand differs from the total

population of pairs to a greater degree than is consistent with the assumption that it is a satisfactorily random sampling.

Substituting from Table 25 in the usual formulas we find the following values:

Group I		Group II		Difference	
M_1	113.58	M_2	113.04	$d(M_1 - M_2)$.54
σ_1	10.96	σ_2	10.83	σ_d	2.02
σ_{M1}	2.19	σ_{M2}	2.17	σ_{Md}	.40
$\sigma_{\sigma 1}$	1.55	$\sigma_{\sigma 2}$	1.53	t	1.35

The formulas which have been employed, and the given statistical measures obtained through them for both intelligence and achievement scores, are shown in Table 26.

TABLE 26
COMPARISON OF GROUPS I AND II PRIOR TO
THE EXPERIMENTS A AND B

Item	M	σ	σ_M	σ_σ	M_d	σ_d	σ_{Md}	t
Formula	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ scores}}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\Sigma d}{N}\right)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{2(N-1)}}$	$\frac{\Sigma d}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d^2}{N} - (Md)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_d}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{Md}{\sigma_{Md}}$
I.Q.'s Group I	113.58	10.96	2.19	1.55	.54	2.02	.40	1.35
I.Q.'s Group II	113.04	10.83	2.17	1.53				
Achievement								
Scores Group I	16.88	6.75	1.35	.95	73	6.82	1.36	.54
Achievement								
Scores Group II	17.61	8.17	1.63	1.15				

A detailed comparison may be made of the means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the groups, or the two groups may be directly compared in terms of their differences. Although the means, standard deviations, and standard errors are given in order that a general comparison may be made at a glance, we wish primarily to determine whether the observed mean difference of .54 is a difference which might have arisen by chance in a population of matched pairs in which, according to our hypothesis, the mean of the differences between the I.Q.'s of all matched pairs divided by its standard error is zero. The ratio $\frac{\text{difference between the means}}{\text{its estimated standard error}}$

in this case $\frac{.54}{.40} = 1.35$, must be interpreted in terms of a "t" distribution when N is as small as it is here. By referring to a table of probabilities for "Student's" Distribution (R. A. Fisher's *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*, Table IV), we find that a "t" of 1.35, with twenty-five degrees of freedom ($N - 1$), is associated with a confidence coefficient of .2, which means that the chances are 2 out of 10 that we have drawn a random sampling.

Adopting the hypothesis that the mean difference in the I.Q.'s of the matched pairs of the entire population is zero, we hold that Groups I and II are random samples which might occur by chance 200 out of a 1000 times, and that the observed difference of .54 may be due to sampling errors.

The history achievement scores of Groups I and II have been compared in the same manner as the intelligence quotients. Table 25 contains the paired achievement test scores of Group I and Group II, and the differences between the members of the matched pairs, and Table 26 shows the formulas and statistical measures which have been obtained.

The mean achievement score for Group I is 16.88 and for Group II, 17.61, the difference being .73 in favor of Group II. The standard deviation for Group I is 6.75 and for Group II, 8.17. The standard error of the mean for Group I is 1.35 and for Group II, 1.63; the standard error of the standard deviation for Group I is .95 and for Group II, 1.15. The standard deviation of the differences is 6.82 and the standard error of the difference is 1.36. Assuming again the hypothesis underlying the discussion of the intelligence quotients of the matched pairs, we proceed to ask whether the observed difference (.73) may be accounted for as the result of sampling errors. The ratio of the obtained difference between the means (.73) to its standard error (1.36) is .54. Referring again to Table IV in Fisher's text, we find that a "t" of .54 with twenty-five degrees of freedom ($N - 1$), is associated with a confidence coefficient of .6. This means that there are 600 chances in 1000 that our sample of matched pairs is a random sample, and that the obtained difference of .73 between the means of the pairs in favor of Group II may likewise be due to sampling errors.

We are justified in concluding from the results of the foregoing comparison of Groups I and II that they are satisfactorily equated on the basis of the traits used in matching. It has been seen that the difference in intelligence quotients in favor of Group I may be due to sampling errors, and that the difference in history achievement scores in favor of Group II may likewise be due to sampling errors.

The difference of .54 between the means of the I.Q.'s in favor of Group I is so small that its influence favoring Group I in the results of the experiments would be of the slightest. Group II has a slight advantage in its history achievement scores. The two groups are believed to have been satisfactorily equated in age, course of study, and home background. It seems therefore as if they are so nearly equal on the basis upon which they are matched that any significant differences which might be observed at the end of experiments A and B may fairly be attributed to the influence of the experiments themselves.

The teaching techniques used in experimental classes.—The same teaching methods were used in Experiments A and B, the discussion method being used with Group I, the control group, and the excursion method with Group II.

The discussion method usually involved: the assignment of topics, or a list of questions, or a section in the textbook, followed by a class discussion of the assignment on the succeeding day. References to suitable material available in the library were suggested, and pupils were urged to read as many of these as possible during their study of the unit. Both teacher and pupils kept a record of the amount of reading done. A notebook outline of important facts was made either during or after the discussion. A short test on the lesson was given once a week. Other procedures—such as references to maps, oral reports on particular topics, discussion of pictures on the bulletin board—were used on occasion when they fitted into the class discussion.

The method used with Group II was identical with that used with Group I except for the inclusion of the "excursion technique." This "technique" involved preparing for, carrying out, and studying in retrospect three museum excursions in the course of each experiment.

The planning of the entire excursion program, and of all the incidental details, such as making the necessary arrangements with school and with museum authorities, chartering the bus, and collecting from pupils the money to cover the cost, were handled entirely by the teacher. The desirability of allowing pupils to have a share in the planning was weighed against its disadvantages for the particular purpose in view, and the idea was discarded because it was believed that a very definite plan should be followed throughout the experiment, and it was felt that any sharing of the planning with pupils might bring about variations which would make it difficult to measure any one museum technique. The date for each excursion was announced at least three school days in advance to allow opportunity for pupils to plan their afternoon engagements so as not to conflict with the excursion.

Three main questions adapted to each particular excursion were planned and used to create or heighten interest in the proposed trips. The first excursion, for instance, was to be made to the sections of the American Museum of Natural History containing the exhibits of Dinosaurs, of Early Man, and of the Central American Indians. The three questions discussed prior to it were:

1. What do we know of the daily life and the ideas of prehistoric man?
2. What objects, pictures, and monuments have been found which have added to our knowledge of prehistoric man?
3. *a* What objects have you seen which enable you to visualize and describe these people?
b What kinds of things should you be interested to see at the Museum?

These questions were put by the teacher during the class discussion of the character of the daily life of primitive man. The class discussion of the three questions was held on the day before the trip, and often occupied the greater part of the period. Such discussion—guided by the teacher more or less in line with exhibits which might be found in the Museum—were helpful in bringing out in a general way the relative interest of the class in the different exhibits. Some questions were naturally of a kind to which no answer would be obtainable from the exhibits themselves, and in such a case they were either answered at the moment or, if needing considerable explanation, at some later time. At the end of the discussion of the three questions, any necessary announcements

were made about the excursion plans. The plan to be followed during the time spent at the Museum was outlined before the first excursion. Pencils and paper were the only materials needed for the excursions.

All of the excursions were made by chartered bus, which left from the school and returned to it. The money to cover the cost of transportation for all the excursions was collected before the first trip was made. The group left the school at the beginning of their class period, and on reaching the Museum, spent there the equivalent in time of a class period—forty-five minutes. The museum group thus received instruction for just the same amount of time as Group I. Thirty-two pupils, the maximum number which the bus could accommodate, went on each excursion. No instruction was given en route, and pupils were free to talk—or sing—while on the bus. On arriving at the Museum, the group went directly to the halls which were to be visited.

The teacher served as guide for each excursion and explained the exhibits which seemed of most importance. Pupils were required to take notes. These were at first very brief, but with each successive trip the pupils showed increased ability to make notes which would aid them in the after-study of the material. Pupils were encouraged to ask questions, or to comment to the group on exhibits which aroused their curiosity or which especially interested them; and, whenever time permitted, they were given opportunity to observe other exhibits in the room, or to return again to those which had already been pointed out by the teacher.

The teacher had made each excursion several times before making it with his class, and had spent considerable time studying the exhibits. The ones especially selected for each excursion were those which particularly fitted in with the previous day's discussion, and those which were most fully described in the Museum Guide. Other methods of teaching might have been used at the Museum, the services of one of the regular guides, for instance, being engaged; but, inasmuch as the teacher had previously made himself thoroughly familiar with the material there, it seemed best to have the teaching done by the person who was acquainted with the individual pupils, and with their general backgrounds of knowledge and special preparation for the excursion.

Some difficulty was experienced in enabling all of the pupils to see the exhibits while they were being explained, but by careful grouping of the class, placing the shorter pupils in front of the taller ones, and sometimes by giving a second demonstration for a part of the group while some members were studying other exhibits, this difficulty was surmounted. No disciplinary problems arose, and during each period spent at the Museum, the pupils were fully as orderly and cooperative as during any period in the classroom.

Pupils were required upon their return home to select material from their notes on a few of the exhibits which had especially interested them, and to write a brief report explaining them or describing and commenting upon them. These reports were due on the day after the excursion. They were marked by the teacher and later returned to the writers.

A class discussion of matters of interest followed each excursion. No particular plan was followed in this discussion. It usually centered around the exhibits in which the class had been most interested, or around the questions which they had aroused. Every effort was made to prevent this discussion from becoming a mere review and reiteration of the excursion experiences, and to make it a means of clearing up questions which had arisen, and of emphasizing facts which had been brought out or illustrated by the museum study.

Later on, references were made from time to time to the exhibits which had been studied when it seemed as if they might be helpful in explaining a point in the class discussion. It was the aim of the teacher to make each excursion fit very definitely into the study of a topic, and to contribute consistently to the consideration of its various aspects whenever in any way possible.

The three excursions in the course of the two experiments were:

In Experiment A

- 1) American Museum of Natural History—Hall of Dinosaurs, Hall of Early Man, section devoted to Central American Indian
- 2) Metropolitan Museum—Prehistoric and Early Egyptian sections
- 3) Metropolitan Museum—Later Egyptian ("New Kingdom") section

In Experiment B

- 1) American Indian Museum
- 2) Metropolitan Museum—Babylonian, Assyrian, Cretan, and Chinese sections
- 3) Metropolitan Museum—Greek section

All of these museums are located in New York City. Each trip lasted approximately three and a half hours.

Selection and reliability of tests.—A part of the preparation for Experiments A and B was a careful examination of the available tests in history which meet the requirements considered by Symonds¹² essential for a test. Search was made for a test which would at the same time cover adequately the subject-matter used for the experiment and for suitable means of measuring other factors of the results; tests or questionnaires which would indicate or measure increase of interest in history or ability to locate and use historical source material. Very few tests containing suitable subject-matter could be found, and those which were found were either very brief, or covered a very long period of history, or contained too wide range of material. The lack of any adequate means of measuring interest led to the construction of an interest questionnaire by the writer. The construction of this questionnaire and the results obtained from its use are discussed in a later section.

In the light of the criteria established for guidance, the most satisfactory available tests covering the subject-matter of the two experiments were those prepared by Elizabeth Daves, Instructor in History, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas, Texas, under the supervision of Dr. C. W. Odell, Associate Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Illinois, and Dr. F. A. Balyeat, Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Oklahoma. Professor Odell was the general editor of the test and Professor Balyeat the statistician. Test I, Form A, "The Beginnings of Civilization," was used for Experiment A; and Test II, Form A, "The Rise of Greek Civilization," for Experiment B.

Although no measure of validity is given for the tests, the Manual of Directions which accompanies them states that the tests include the "most suitable" items comprised in series of tests which had been drawn upon in making the forms mentioned. Examination of the test items shows that the material consists of detailed statements covering political, social, economic, and cultural aspects of ancient history. Although the test seemed suitable for measuring the greater

¹² P. M. Symonds, *Measurement in Secondary Education*, Chap. XIV, pp. 278-307. 1927.

part of the material included in the experiment, it was judged advisable to add a supplement consisting of objective test items covering the material in the course of study and in the textbook, and other material stressed by the teacher. The supplement was based on a revision of unit tests which had been used in previous semesters. Questions which experience had shown to be ambiguous or of slight value were eliminated in the revised form. The supplement was submitted to other teachers of history for suggestions, and was amended on the basis of their recommendations.

The general character of the completed tests that were used is shown below. Copies of the tests are given in the Appendix.

Test I (Used in Experiment A)		Test II (Used in Experiment B)	
	Items		Items
Daves Test I, Form A	30 multiple choice 20 short answer 25 matching 25 true and false	Daves Test II, Form A	30 multiple choice 20 short answer 20 matching 30 true and false
Supplement	65 short answer 15 multiple choice	Supplement	65 short answer 50 true and false
Total	<u>180</u>	Total	<u>215</u>

A page of directions on the Daves tests stated the general purpose and procedure to be followed in answering, and illustrative answers preceded each section of the test. The directions on the experimenter's mimeographed supplement were similar to those on the printed test. All items in both test and supplement were objective; a credit of one point was given for each item. Because it was desired to give the test during a single class period, the actual testing time was limited to 40 minutes.

The test proved somewhat too long for completion during the 40 minutes, but the same amount of time was given each group so that, although the total scores are probably not so high as they might be had a longer period been allowed, they nevertheless are believed to be comparable.

Alternative forms were not provided for Daves tests, so the same test was used at the beginning of the experiment and at the end, four weeks later. Any "carry over" from the initial to the final test should be the same for both groups. The tentative national norms printed in the Manual of Directions indicate that the Daves tests have been widely used. The results of the present experiments cannot, however, be compared with these because of the difference in the time limit, the difference in scoring, and the addition of the supplement.

No measure of reliability was given for the Daves tests. The reliability coefficient in which we are interested here is, however, that of the combined forms. This reliability for each of the combined forms has been determined by correlating the odd with the even scores to find the reliability of the half-tests, and then securing the reliability of the whole test by the Spearman-Brown formula. The index of reliability and other statistical measures have also been calculated.

Test I contains 180 items, 90 "odds" and 90 "evens." Test II contains 215 items, or, with the last item omitted in order to make the total score evenly divisible by two, 107 odds and 107 evens. A time limit of 40 minutes was set. A credit of one point was given for each correct answer. Sixty papers were used to correlate the odds and evens of Test I, and 58 papers the odds and evens of Test II. The two sets of scores—odd and even—on each test were correlated by the product-moment method to find the reliability of the half tests. Even scores were used as the x variable and odd scores as the y variable. The statistical findings are as follows:

Test I

For even scores:

M_x	49.70
σ_x	11.50
σ_{M_x}	1.49
σ_{σ_x}	1.05

For odd scores:

M_y	49.05
σ_y	10.40
σ_{M_y}	1.34
σ_{σ_y}	.95

r of the half test	.83
r of the whole test	.91
r index of reliability	.95

From the above statistical data the equivalence of the two halves of the test may be seen at a glance. There is little difference (.65)

between the means of the odd and even scores. Although there is a somewhat greater spread in the even scores, the standard deviations show that within three sigmas there is but little difference in the range in which scores fall. The difference between the standard errors of the means is .15, and the difference between the standard deviations is 1.10.

By employing Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation formula, $\frac{\sum x'y'}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x'}{N} \cdot \frac{\sum y'}{N} \right)$ we find the correlation of the half-test to be .83.

The reliability of the whole test, from the Spearman-Brown formula $\frac{2r}{1+r}$ is .91. This formula assumes that the halves of the test are approximately equivalent in difficulty and content.

The reliability of the r of .91 may be interpreted in terms of its index of reliability, obtained by taking the square root of the r . The index of reliability of an r of .91 is .95, the highest reliability, except by chance, of which the test is capable.

The same procedure for Test I has been followed in determining the reliability of Test II used in Experiment B. The results are:

Test II

For even scores:

M_e	66.4
σ_e	12.50
σ_{Me}	1.16
$\sigma\sigma_e$	1.63

r of the half test .58
 r of the whole test .73
 r index of reliability .85

For odd scores:

M_o	71.
σ_o	12.15
σ_{Mo}	1.13
$\sigma\sigma_o$	1.51

Although there is a difference of 4.6 points in the means of the odds and evens in Test II, the total range of variation in the spread of the scores is very slight. The standard errors of the means and the standard deviations are practically the same.

The reliability of the half-test is .58, and of the whole test .73. The highest correlation which may be expected is .85. Although a reliability coefficient of more than .73 would make it possible to interpret the test results with more assurance, its reliability nevertheless approaches the suggested standard of .80 and its maximum

reliability surpasses that standard. Some experimenters think .73 to be a very satisfactory indication of reliability.

Test I was given to both Groups I and II by the experimenter on the day preceding the beginning of Experiment A. The same test was administered to both classes on the last day of the experiment. Test II was given on the opening and on the closing day of Experiment B. The same general procedure in administering the tests was followed with both groups. The same directions were given, and the same testing time—40 minutes—was allowed. Pupils in the test groups were familiar with objective tests through the standardized tests given to them in the elementary and junior high schools.

The scoring was on a basis of one point for each item correctly

TABLE 27
COMPARISON OF GAINS OF GROUPS I AND II IN EXPERIMENT A

Matched Pair No	Group I			Group II			Difference between Gains
	Test Scores		Gain	Test Scores		Gain	
	Initial	Final		Initial	Final		
1	45	128	83	30	124	94	11
2	38	81	43	83	132	49	6
3	37	110	73	38	111	73	0
4	83	141	58	50	115	65	7
5	35	110	75	48	120	72	-3
6	41	94	53	32	87	55	2
7	20	83	63	24	98	74	11
8	26	99	73	45	118	73	0
9	38	116	78	47	123	76	-2
10	36	84	48	54	103	49	1
11	25	83	58	35	97	62	4
12	23	80	57	36	102	66	9
13	34	88	54	30	89	59	5
14	25	71	46	33	72	39	-7
15	27	81	54	31	86	55	1
16	18	62	44	18	69	51	7
17	36	104	68	37	115	78	10
18	22	92	70	32	103	71	1
19	42	114	72	58	131	73	1
20	35	112	77	36	119	83	6
21	45	73	28	56	87	31	3
22	15	90	75	29	108	79	4
23	30	94	64	22	89	67	3
24	29	83	54	23	90	67	13
25	43	89	46	33	76	43	-3
26	24	67	43	31	72	41	-2

answered. The total score for the matching and short answer sections was the sum of the correct items; for the true-false sections, the difference between the number right and number wrong; and for the multiple choice sections, the difference between the number right and one-fourth of the number wrong.

Comparison of techniques on basis of gains in knowledge.—The initial and final test scores of members of Groups I and II, the gains, and the differences between the gains are shown in Table 27. The interpretation of the results is based on the difference between the gains made by the members of the matched pairs. Because of the carefully controlled conditions under which the experiment was conducted, any significant difference found in favor of either group may be interpreted as evidence of the superiority of the method which produced the difference. The more important of the control factors are:

1. The equating of the experimental groups on the basis of intelligence, knowledge of ancient history, age, membership in a college-preparatory course, and home background.

2. Maintenance of uniformity in the two groups in subject-matter covered, general classroom procedure, amount of time given to instruction, elimination, as far as possible, of teacher's bias in favor of either method, and uniformity in method of instruction with the exception of the experimental factor—the excursion technique.

3. Use of tests adequate to show the gain in knowledge.

Table 28 contains the formulas used, and the statistical results, of Experiment A. The same statistical symbolism and formulas are used, and the same hypothesis adopted, as were discussed in connection with the equating of the experimental groups. The mean

TABLE 28
STATISTICAL COMPARISON OF GROUPS I AND II IN EXPERIMENT A

Item	M	σ	σ_M	σ_e	M_d	σ_d	σ_{Md}	t
Formula	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ scores}}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\Sigma d}{N}\right)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{2(N-1)}}$	$\frac{\Sigma d}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d^2}{N} - (M_d)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_d}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{M_d}{\sigma_{Md}}$
Group I	59.88	13.63	2.73	1.93	3.39	4.89	.98	3.46
Group II	63.27	14.91	2.98	2.11				

gain for Group I is 59.88, and for Group II is 63.27, with a difference of 3.39 in favor of Group II, the excursion group. The standard deviation for Group I is 13.63, and for Group II is 14.91. The standard error of the mean of Group I is 2.73, and of Group II 2.98. The standard error of the standard deviation for Group I is 1.93, and for Group II 2.11.

The significance of the mean difference, 3.39, may be determined by the ratio of that difference to its standard error, which will be interpreted in terms of a "*t*" distribution since the number of cases is small. The hypothesis upon which the interpretation is based is that the twenty-six matched pairs represent a random selection from an infinite population of matched pairs, and that the ratio of mean differences between the gains of the members of the pairs—one instructed by the class discussion and the other by the excursion technique—to the standard error of the difference, may be zero. If a difference is found which is greater than zero by a larger amount than may reasonably occur by chance, the hypothesis will of necessity be discarded, and the interpretation based upon the hypothesis that the twenty-six cases are drawn at random from an infinite population of pairs, the difference between the means of which divided by its standard error is not zero, but is a difference due to some "other factor." Since the conditions of the experiment are controlled as far as possible, it is probable that the "other factor" producing the difference is the experimental factor.

The difference between the means is 3.39 and the standard deviation of the differences is 4.89. The standard error of the difference is .98. The ratio of the mean difference (3.39) to its standard error (.98) is 3.46. By reference to the table of probabilities for "*t*" (Student's Distribution) in R. A. Fisher's text, *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*, it is found that the highest value given in the table for 25 degrees of freedom ($26 - 1$) is 2.75, a value which signifies chance occurrence once in a hundred times. Since the obtained ratio of 3.46 is greater by far than 2.75, it follows that it would occur by chance less frequently by far than once in a hundred times. Rather than hold to the hypothesis that a difference does not exist between the member of a matched pair taught by the class discussion and the member taught by the excursion technique, and that the ratio 3.46

indicates a difference occurring by chance in drawing a very extreme sampling, it seems more reasonable to assume the second hypothesis, there is a difference between the members of the pairs taught by the excursion method and the members taught by the discussion method, and that difference, if greater than may reasonably occur by chance as a result of sampling errors, is significant. The ratio 3.46 is greater than could occur by chance, and it is a ratio obtained from a difference in favor of the excursion method. It seems therefore practically certain that, if the same study were carried out under exactly similar conditions with another random sample of the same population, a difference in favor of the excursion technique would be found.

The initial and final test scores of members of Groups I and II in Experiment B, the gains, and the differences between the gains are shown in Table 29. The same formulas as are used in Experiment A are again used in obtaining the statistical results, shown in Table 30, and the same interpretation is applied to the results.

A difference of 21.88 exists between the means in favor of Group II. There is a somewhat greater variability in the scores of Group I. There is little difference between the standard errors of the Groups, 3.74 and 3.17, or between the standard errors of the sigmas, 2.64 and 2.24.

The significance of the difference of 21.88 is interpreted in terms of the "t" distribution. The difference between the means is 21.88, its standard error is 2.81, and the ratio between them is 7.78. We discard the first hypothesis considered in Experiment A, for it is seen that a ratio as large as 7.78 could not be expected to occur by chance in samples taken at random from an infinite population for which the ratio is zero. Adopting the hypothesis that the ratio of 7.78 could not occur by chance, but represents a difference in favor of some other factor, we interpret the results of Experiment B to indicate the superiority of the excursion method over the discussion method in increasing knowledge, substantiating the results of Experiment A.

The reason for the marked difference in the gains shown in the two experiments is naturally asked. It is not possible to adduce any evidence which will satisfactorily account for this difference. After

TABLE 29
COMPARISON OF GAINS OF GROUPS I AND II IN EXPERIMENT B

Matched Pair No.	Group I			Group II			Difference between Gains
	Test Scores		Gain	Test Scores		Gain	
	Initial	Final		Initial	Final		
1	49	145	96	41	155	114	18
2	43	111	68	66	163	97	29
3	26	107	81	43	137	94	13
4	75	139	64	31	136	105	41
5	45	140	95	52	151	99	4
6	28	101	73	32	130	98	25
7	19	69	50	39	126	87	37
8	42	122	80	46	146	100	20
9	32	143	111	42	184	142	31
10	22	104	82	33	145	112	30
11	33	83	50	45	142	97	47
12	25	101	76	43	134	91	15
13	13	87	74	36	139	103	29
14	23	81	58	23	103	80	22
15	29	80	51	22	113	91	40
16	37	85	48	15	77	62	14
17	29	100	71	30	143	113	42
18	34	121	87	31	118	87	0
19	44	130	86	35	128	93	7
20	28	147	119	36	151	115	-4
21	28	108	80	23	111	88	8
22	31	91	60	33	129	96	36
23	35	104	69	20	100	80	11
24	11	92	81	25	107	82	1
25	33	80	47	22	92	70	23
26	39	90	51	25	106	81	30

TABLE 30
STATISTICAL COMPARISON OF GROUPS I AND II IN EXPERIMENT B

Item	M	σ	σ_M	σ_e	M_d	σ_d	σ_{Md}	t
Formulas	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ scores}}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d_s^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\Sigma d}{N}\right)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{\sigma_{dist}}{\sqrt{2(N-1)}}$	$\frac{\Sigma d}{N}$	$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma d^2}{N} - (M_d)^2}$	$\frac{\sigma_d}{\sqrt{N-1}}$	$\frac{M_d}{\sigma_{Md}}$
Group I	73.38	18.70	3.74	2.64	21.88	14.05	2.81	7.78
Group II	95.26	15.87	3.17	2.24				

consideration of several possible explanations, the conclusion was reached that the most important contributing factor was the difficulty of the pupils, many of whom were just entering high school, in adjusting themselves to a new school environment and to a method of instruction—the excursion technique—which was also comparatively new to them. It will be recalled that Experiment A was begun in the second week of the school term because the excursion fitted into the units which were taught at the beginning of the year. The majority of the pupils had many adjustments to make at that time, adjustments to a new building, new classmates, new teachers, new procedures, and the new technique. It is indeed doubtful whether all of the “strangeness” of the new situations had worn off even by the end of the first experiment, but undoubtedly a large part of it was gone. Since, however, the conditions of study were the same for the two groups with the exception of the excursion procedure, the only extra adjustment that had to be made by Group II was that to the excursion method. It is probable that the method demands more adjustment than is apparent on first consideration, for careful observation during the early excursions showed that many pupils, although enjoying the novelty of the new experience, failed to perceive its educational value. As additional excursions were made, pupils seemed to welcome the excursions not merely as a novelty but also because the material studied at the museum possessed more “reality” for them than that found in the textbook. One may indeed almost be surprised, in view of the slowness of at least some of the students to adjust themselves, that the use of the excursion in the first experiment produced results even as favorable to the method as it actually did.

Comparison of techniques on basis of data from item analysis of tests.—An analysis of items contained in the tests has been made in order to discover what particular items, if any, disclose differences in the value of the discussion and excursion techniques.

For the purpose of the analysis, the items in Parts I and II of the supplementary tests used in Experiments A and B were chosen. The supplementary sections were selected because these sections were given at the beginning of the testing periods, and were consequently more completely answered than the other sections which

were incomplete because of the time limit imposed. The items on each of the fifty-two papers of the final tests of the experimental groups were tabulated, making a total of 3,588 items for the 69 questions of Part I, and of 5,512 items for the 106 questions of Part II. Since inspection of the data showed that the items successfully answered on both Part I and Part II are of essentially the same kind, it has seemed best to consider the results of the two tests together, basing any inferences on the analysis of the 175 items.

The item analysis has been made on the basis of a comparison between the number of correct answers for each item on the initial score and the number correct for each item on the final score. Table 32, in the Appendix (page 218), contains the list of the 175 differences (final minus initial score) for Group I (D^I) and for Group II (D^{II}), together with the amounts by which one group exceeds the other ($D^{II} - D^I$). A positive difference between D^{II} and D^I indicates superiority of Group II, and a negative difference, of Group I.

Every item has been considered in interpretation of results, with particular attention to those showing large differences between groups. Since all test items and complete table of differences are given in the Appendix, it is unnecessary to repeat them here. The items cited below are those for which the scores of Group I exceed those of Group II by seven or more points, and (since scores of Group II are frequently greater by more than 7 points) those for which the scores of Group II exceed those of Group I by ten or more points. These twenty-five items are to be looked upon as illustrations of the items on which the interpretations are based, and not of course, as the total evidence for the interpretations, for they constitute but a small part of the whole number.

The twenty-five items showing the greatest differences between Group I and Group II are as follows:

ITEMS SHOWING SUPERIORITY OF GROUP I

No.		$D^{II} - D^I$
10	The largest family of prehistoric animals was the family.	— 7
12	Some of the largest skeletons of these animals show us that they were as long as feet, and as	— 7
13	high as feet.	— 8

No.		D ^{II} —D ^I
55	The new stone age in which shaped weapons were used is called (a) Alloy, (b) Dinosaur, (c) Neolithic, (d) Palaeolithic	—11
72	The people who settled in Greece before the Greeks built the city of	— 7
77	One of the two leading cities of Greece was	—11
86	The greatest temple in Athens was	— 9
134	The theatre of Dionysus was one of the largest Greek theaters.	—13
155	The Porch of Maidens was found in Olympia	— 8
158	The Greeks adopted many of the Roman customs.	— 8
168	The Greek alphabet resembles our own.	— 8

ITEMS SHOWING SUPERIORITY OF GROUP II

27	The Nile River overflowed times a year	12
33	The largest collection of Egyptian objects found in this country is in Museum.	11
36	The tomb of King Tutankhamen was discovered by	10
39	The estimated value of the objects found in that tomb is	11
40	Cleopatra's needle is an	16
42	It is about feet high.	15
57	False doors found in tombs were (a) to deceive robbers, (b) for decorations, (c) to let Osiris come in the tomb, (d) to let the spirit leave the tomb.	16
58	We know barley was grown in early Egypt because (a) it is mentioned on the Rosetta stone, (b) it is still raised there, (c) the seed has been found, (d) the land was fertile.	11
68	The Indian culture in South America was (a) Mayans, (b) Aztec, (c) Toltecs, (d) Incas.	10
133	The Greeks erected a statue to "the unknown God."	16
146	Greeks seldom, if ever, used bronze.	10
151	Red figured pottery was one of the later developments in Greece.	14
152	We have found dated Greek coins.	13
165	The Greeks, Assyrians and Cretans used glass.	15

Although the item analysis does not offer any definite proof of the superiority of either the discussion or the excursion method, it does point to certain differences in the kinds of information which appear to be better acquired through the use of one or the other method. The discussion group, as would naturally be expected, has the higher record on the items definitely associated with the subject-matter treated in the textbook and supplementary reading, and the excursion group the higher on the items closely related to the excursion experiences. Items involving date, or approximate size—as of

a dinosaur, for instance—yield a higher score for the discussion group, probably because of the class discussion of the material read and of the notebook work; as do also those items which concern the location of cities, countries, and other geographical features which could be visualized on a map. The excursion group, on the other hand, scores higher on items calling for an acquaintance with the general appearance of objects—as of the Tomb of King Tutankhamen—and for an understanding of the geographical location of particular palaces, monuments, or temples, which have been excavated, and of the kind and appearance of the objects found in them.

The discussion group, in addition, shows a slightly better record than the excursion group on the items which require knowledge of things definitely related to one another, such as the ages into which the development of mankind may be divided, the several periods in Egyptian history, or details of military struggles—knowledge which ordinarily would be gained from lists in a notebook outline. Test items, however, that concern things which can be seen—skeletons of prehistoric animals or early men, different kinds of materials used for coins, writing, sculpture, building—were more often correctly answered by the excursion than by the discussion group.

No particular difference between the two groups was found in the response to items on religion, class distinctions, names of outstanding statesmen and other leaders, or types of government. If any difference at all may be detected between the records of the two groups on such items, it is, on the whole, rather in favor of the discussion group.

Since the great majority of the items on the tests demand knowledge of particular facts, it is rather difficult to draw any conclusions regarding the comparative value of the two methods in enabling pupils to interpret or to judge the significance of facts, or to draw conclusions. It seems clear, however, that the excursion group is distinctly superior in response to the items which require some interpretation of the information acquired through observation, such as the comparison of two different civilizations, comparison of different levels of art or culture, or comparison of qualities of objects (of Greek and Egyptian jewelry, for example); superior also on items which involve the appreciation of artistic techniques, such as the use

of color and design on the red-figured pottery of Athens, or the sculptural limitations imposed by materials of different character; and on those which require the understanding of various national or racial characteristics.

The most consistent difference between the groups seems to be the superiority of the discussion group on points of factual detail obtainable from books, and of the excursion group on the kinds of information obtainable through the study of concrete material and on the more realistic comparison made possible by it of the different civilizations which they represent.

Comparison of techniques on basis of results from interest questionnaire.—An attempt was made to secure data which would provide a measure of the interest in ancient history possessed by Groups I and II before and after the study of the topics covered in the course of Experiments A and B.

The Interest Questionnaire used for this purpose was constructed on the assumption that increase in interest resulting from study of the topics would be manifested among other ways in an increased desire (1) to read books, (2) to see motion pictures bearing on persons and events introduced in the experimental material, (3) to visit the countries studied, and (4) to visit museums containing exhibits from those countries and other places having a related interest.

Of the four sections of the questionnaire, the first contains a list of books; the second, of motion pictures; the third, of countries; and the fourth, of museums and other places of local interest. Each of the first three sections contains a list of twenty items with historical bearing, about half of which are directly related to the material included in the experiments, the remaining items being related to other periods of history. In Section 1, the titles which are given are names of books. In Section 2, because of the lack of a sufficient number of historical films related to the material included in the experiments, additional titles have been invented. The titles are accompanied by a concise indication of the theme of the motion picture. Section 4 includes several places devoid of any historical association—such as the Planetarium and Radio City—which might be made the object of local excursions. These, of course, are discarded in the tabulation.

The items related to the experimental material represent the choice of three teachers of ancient history. These "significant" items are the following:

In Section 1—Nos 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 18, 20

In Section 2—Nos 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 17, 20

In Section 3—Nos 3, 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 17, 18, 19, 20

In Section 4—Nos. 2, 7, 8, 9, 11, 15, 18, 19, 20

A copy of the questionnaire will be found in the Appendix. At this point a description of Section I—that on books—will suffice as illustration for all four sections. The directions for checking the items, and the items themselves, are reproduced below.

INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

Section I

Selection of books

Below are the names of twenty books related in some way to history. Many or perhaps all of these are new to you, yet you are asked to judge from the titles the names of five you think you would most enjoy reading. Place a figure 1 before each of the five you select

Select five others you think you would enjoy reading least and place a 0 before each

1 . Hall, J	Buried Cities
2 . Anderson, C	Through Africa with Livingstone
3... Dickens, C.	The Tale of Two Cities
4.. . Carter, H.	The Tomb of Tutankhamen
5 ... Holbrook, F	Cave, Mound and Lake Dwellers
6.... Chamberlain, L	The New Russia
7... Skinner, A.	The Indians of Manhattan Island
8.... Mills, D.	Story of the Ancient Greeks
9. .. Dumas, A.	The Three Musketeers
10 .. Hopwell, D	The Archaeologist at Work
11 ... Tappan, A	In the Days of Queen Elizabeth
12. . Grimfred, M	Boats of the Ancient World
13 .. Gunther, J.	The Four Dictators
14. Henri, G.	Hitler over Europe
15 .. Breasted, H.	A History of Egypt
16. . Burton, J	The Land of Palestine
17.... Ludwig, M.	Napoleon
18. .. Davis, W	A Day in Old Athens
19.... Wilson, T.	The World War
20 ... Appleby, J	Tombs Along the Nile

It will be noted that pupils are asked to place a figure "1" before each of the five books out of the list of twenty which they think they would most like to read; and to place a "0" before each of the five

which they think they would least like to read. Since many or all of the books are probably unfamiliar, the choice must be based largely on the suggestiveness of the titles. Table 31 shows the frequency with which each significant item (in all four sections) is designated as "liked best" and as "liked least" by members of Group I and Group II both before and after the study of the material covered in Experiments A and B. The questionnaire items which are irrelevant to the purpose—measuring change of interest in the material studied during the experiment—are not shown in the table.

The results may be interpreted either in terms of the change of interest in each item of a section or in terms of the average change. The second method has been chosen, not only because it is a general change in interest rather than a change of interest in any particular detail which the questionnaire is designed to make apparent, but also because it seems possible that some of the items may make a stronger appeal than others to pupils' interest by reason of their mere names. The value of the questionnaire as a means of measuring interest may perhaps itself be called into question. It may be granted at once that no actual proof of its validity for the purpose can be offered, and that in the light of the experience obtained through its use an instrument of greater value could now be constructed. Inasmuch, however, as it is used to compare two groups which are subject to equal influence from any difficulties which it may possess, it seems justifiable to place some degree of reliance upon the results which it yields.

The average frequency of choice of books "liked best" on the initial and final applications of the questionnaire is:

	Before Study	After Study	Difference
For Group I	4 09	5 27	1.18
For Group II	4 54	4.73	0 19

The differences between the initial and the final averages for the "liked best" books, 1.18 for Group I (the discussion group) and 0.09 for Group II (the excursion group), indicate the increased desire of both groups to read more books relating to the topics which were studied in the interval, and indicate a greater increase in interest for Group I than for Group II. It is possible that the discussion group's greater interest in books is a result of its having had more

TABLE 31

CERTAIN INTERESTS OF GROUP I AND GROUP II BEFORE AND AFTER STUDY

Measure		Frequency of Choice							
		"Liked Best"				"Liked Least"			
		GROUP I		GROUP II		GROUP I		GROUP II	
		Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1. Books									
Hall, J.	Buried Cities	13	8	11	10	1	1	4	3
Carter, H.	The Tomb of Tutankhamen	5	9	7	7	1	0	3	5
Holbrook, F.	Cave, Mound and Lake Dwellers	3	1	3	3	5	7	4	5
Skinner, A.	The Indians of Manhattan Island	2	3	2	5	3	6	6	4
Mills, D.	Story of the Ancient Greeks	3	5	4	4	5	1	4	0
Hopwell, D.	The Archaeologist At Work	3	5	3	7	12	9	5	3
Grinfred, N.	Boats of the Ancient World	2	2	2	3	7	10	7	12
Breasted, H.	A History of Egypt	3	6	5	3	3	3	2	3
Burton, J.	The Land of Palestine	0	0	1	1	5	6	6	5
Davis, W.	A Day in Old Athens	2	9	5	5	5	0	7	2
Appleby, J.	Tombs Along the Nile	9	10	7	4	3	3	1	6
Total		45	58	50	52	55	46	49	48
Average		4.09	5.27	4.54	4.73	5.00	4.18	4.45	4.36
Difference		1.18		.19		-0.82		-0.09	
2. Motion Pictures									
Title	Subject								
The Queen	Egyptian Queen Hatshepsut	7	4	8	10	7	9	7	3
Home on Your Shield	Persian Wars	2	6	5	8	7	4	4	7
The Sirens Call	Mythological Greek Story	0	3	2	3	8	8	7	6
A Million Years of History	Romance in Different Ages	5	4	3	5	5	7	8	4
The Captain of the Isles	Greek Civil Wars	4	6	4	4	7	3	5	0
Digging up the Past	Archaeology	6	6	2	11	5	4	5	2
By Sail and Oar	Mediterranean Sea Story	0	2	3	3	10	5	4	8
Abraham of Ur	Jewish Leader, Abraham	0	1	0	3	13	12	12	9
The Lost World	Prehistoric Animals	10	8	9	1	3	4	5	9
The Mummy Speaks	Egyptian Mystery Killing	13	16	13	8	4	0	4	5
Happy Hunting Grounds	Indian Adventures	4	1	6	4	4	4	4	6
Total		51	57	55	60	73	60	65	59
Average		4.64	5.18	5.00	5.45	6.64	5.45	5.91	5.36
Difference		.54		.45		-1.19		-.55	

TABLE 31 (Continued)

Measure	Frequency of Choice							
	"Liked Best"				"Liked Least"			
	GROUP I		GROUP II		GROUP I		GROUP II	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
3. Countries								
Greece	11	12	6	6	5	2	4	4
Italy	6	9	5	6	8	4	5	4
Ciete	0	3	1	1	7	6	5	5
Egypt	18	19	15	15	0	0	3	1
Palestine	5	5	0	0	5	4	5	2
China	8	6	3	11	8	6	6	6
Asia Minor	1	2	0	3	10	4	10	2
Arabia	6	3	0	3	9	4	3	5
Peru	1	2	3	3	3	8	9	5
India	7	6	12	11	3	3	3	1
Total	63	67	45	59	58	41	53	35
Average	6.3	6.7	4.5	5.9	5.8	4.1	5.3	3.5
Difference	.4		1.4		-1.7		-1.8	
4. Near-by Places								
Indian Caves in New York	13	10	8	10	1	2	5	3
Plum Indian Store	0	1	2	7	3	6	9	5
Metropolitan Museum	4	11	8	7	3	1	2	2
American Indian Museum	6	5	5	5	0	1	2	4
Spanish Museum	4	1	2	5	0	3	4	8
Museum of Natural History	12	9	12	8	0	2	1	0
Museum of Hebrew Art	3	1	1	0	11	9	11	12
Chinese Temple	8	7	8	5	6	11	9	5
Greek Theater	5	10	5	10	5	1	9	5
Total	55	55	51	57	29	36	52	44
Average	6.11	6.11	5.67	6.33	3.22	4.00	6.5	4.89
Difference	0.0		.66		.78		-1.61	

opportunity to read and discuss material found in books than the excursion group had. Such an interpretation of the results would accord with the opinion of many psychologists that the satisfaction which results from doing things successfully begets the desire to do more of the same kinds of things. Either method, however, as would be expected, seems to produce an increased desire to read books related to the subject about which a pupil knows something.

Another check of change of interest is given by a similar comparison of the frequencies of choice of books "liked least." The average frequencies for the two groups are as follows:

	Before Study	After Study	Difference
For Group I	5 00	4 18	-0 82
For Group II	4 45	4 36	-0 09

It is seen from the figures for the differences in the averages of the groups for books "liked least" that Group I checked fewer books under this head at the end of the experiment than at the beginning, thus showing, to the extent of 0.82, a greater interest in reading books bearing on the material which had become familiar. The smaller difference for Group II in the "liked least" books as well as in the "liked best" books might be interpreted to point to the influence of the excursions in producing a preference for the "first-hand route" to knowledge rather than the book route.

The differences between average frequencies of choice of the items related to the material studied which were "liked best" and those which were "liked least," prior to and following the study of the experimental material, are summarized for each of the four sections of the interest questionnaire:

		Average Differences before and after Experimental Study	
		Items "Liked Best"	Items "Liked Least"
Section 1	For Group I	1.18	-0.82
	For Group II	0 19	-0.09
Section 2	For Group I	0 54	-1 19
	For Group II	0.45	-0 55
Section 3	For Group I	0 4	-1.7
	For Group II	1 4	-1.8
Section 4	For Group I	0 0	0 78
	For Group II	0.66	-1.61

Reference to the list of differences between initial and final averages in Section 2 of the questionnaire shows that both groups possess a greater desire after their study to see historical motion pictures bearing on their topics, and that the gain is nearly the same for each group. When judged by the differences in the averages of the "least liked" pictures chosen before and after the experiment, Group I shows a considerably greater gain in interest than Group II.

The data for Section 3 indicate that the increase during the course of the experiments in desire to visit the countries learned about is greater in amount than the increase in desire either to read books or to view motion pictures related to the topics of study. This is particularly evident for the excursion group. When the "liked best" results are considered, Group I shows a gain of 0.4, and Group II a gain of 1.4, nearly four times as much. There is little difference in the amount of the change in interest in the two groups which can be found from a comparison of the "liked least" averages. The differences between the initial and final averages for the "liked least" countries are greater than those found in any other section of the questionnaire. It is probable that the interest developed by members of the excursion group through visits to near-by places carries over to increase their desire to visit also the countries about which they have studied.

On turning to the data from Section 4 of the questionnaire, it is seen that Group I shows less desire to visit near-by places at the close of the experiment than at its beginning, and that Group II shows a substantial increase. When the figures for the "liked best" places are considered, it is seen that Group I maintains, but does not increase, its interest, while Group II increases in interest by 0.66. A still greater difference between the two groups is seen from the comparison of the figures for the "liked least" places. The amount of decrease in the desire of Group I to visit near-by places is measured by the difference of 0.78 between the initial and the final averages, and the amount of increase in the desire of Group II to make such visits, by 1.61.

The reason for the loss of interest by Group I can only be conjectured. It may be that the members of Group I saw no value in visiting museums and historical localities in the vicinity because they

did not realize that such places held anything of value for them. Since the method used with Group I had involved no mention of the value of excursions, and had included references to museums only incidentally in connection with pictures obtained from them, it is, perhaps, natural that pupils in that group should see no reason for visiting them. Group II, on the other hand, had actually visited three of the museums on the list in Section 4; and, with six recently made excursions fresh in mind, and with the normal desire for first-hand knowledge heightened by class discussion, it is, perhaps, natural that this group should show increased interest at the close of the experiment.

This increased interest of Group II is all the more significant because it might be supposed that a class, once having visited the various sections in a museum which contain material dealing with its topics of study, would not be likely to feel any particular interest in returning there. Just the opposite is found to be true: that not only do pupils maintain their original interest in visiting museums and other places, but also, in general, that interest grows greater through such visits as are made.

The data obtained from the Interest Questionnaire confirm the hypothesis tentatively suggested in the discussion of the growth of interest shown by pupils in reading books related to the material studied during the experiment. That hypothesis—that pupils desire to continue to do what they have learned to do successfully—finds confirmation from each section of the questionnaire. Both groups show increased interest in books and in motion pictures relating to the material studied, and in making visits to the countries learned about and to near-by places that have some connection with the material worked with.

The discussion method, affording greater opportunity of reading to Group I than to Group II, owing to the time consumed by the frequent excursions of the latter group, produced a greater interest in reading than did the excursion method; the two methods produced substantially equal interest in motion pictures—these not being directly discussed with either group; and the excursion method produced a greater increase than the discussion method in the desire to visit both the foreign countries which were studied and places in

the immediate neighborhood which were in some manner related to the material of the experiment. So far as may be inferred from the questionnaire data, the increase in interest seems to be in the type of experience which has been obtained rather than in the subject-matter through which the experience is offered. Pupils who have had "book experience" show increased interest in reading books; pupils with "excursion experience" are apparently interested in making further excursions—regardless of what subject-matter the excursion may have to offer.

All of the experimental evaluations so far made of the effectiveness of the excursion technique in increasing knowledge and in stimulating interest, indicate that it possesses certain advantages which the discussion method lacks, particularly in dealing with subject-matter which requires immediate personal experience for its best understanding and appreciation. The excursion as a teaching technique, however, stands in need of much further study which ought to be directed toward the investigation not only of the values studied up to the present date, but also of many others in the long list of those which are claimed for it.

SUMMARY

The literature on the school excursion shows that a strikingly wide range of values has been claimed for it.

An inquiry by questionnaire among teachers using the excursion technique has shown some particular values which they commonly believe it to possess, and the kind of evidence upon which they rely in judging the worth of the excursions which they make.

The following values are attributed to it on two-thirds or more of the 476 questionnaire returns: awakening interest and appreciation both in the immediate fields of study and in related fields; providing a direct and personal knowledge of the environment which can be gained only through first-hand experiences; developing keenness and accuracy in observation; and producing a longer retention of knowledge than is produced by other methods.

The kinds of evidence upon which teachers rest their opinions of the value of their excursions include: increased interest in the subject of study, as shown by more eager participation in class discus-

sion; the spontaneous undertaking of additional excursions; increase in the number of library references which are read; and increase in knowledge as shown by results of tests.

Grinstead's experimental study of the relative success of the excursion technique and of different forms of the class discussion method in increasing knowledge, points to the superiority of the former. Working with matched groups in a junior high school to compare the relative increase in information produced by the excursion and by classroom discussion of the same topic—the latter supplemented by class demonstration, motion pictures, or other means of vitalizing the study—Grinstead found an average of 65 per cent more gain in knowledge to have resulted from the excursion; found also that such gain was greater for superior than for average children; and found that the use of the excursion to introduce pupils to a topic seemed to produce greater gain than its use as a summary and review at the close of study of the topic.

The two experiments—A and B—made as a part of the present study have given results which show that under the given conditions the class-discussion method supplemented by the excursions produced a gain in knowledge greater than that produced by the method of class discussion when used alone.

The item analysis of the test used indicates that the excursion technique is superior to class discussion for teaching material requiring comparisons and knowledge of concrete objects which can be more easily visualized with the aid of experiences by the excursion offered; and that class discussion yields better results for material for which memory is important—such as dates, dimensions, and items usually presented in list or outline form in notebook or textbook.

The use of an interest questionnaire, which was constructed to compare possible differences in growth of interest produced by the two procedures, had shown that interest appears to be more influenced by the character of the experiences associated with the subject-matter studied than with the subject-matter itself. The excursion group showed at the end of the experiment an increased desire to visit the countries which had been studied and to visit places in the vicinity which held some relationship to the subject-matter covered;

the discussion group expressed a stronger interest in reading books relating to the material than in making excursions. Members of both groups, in other words, showed increased interest in doing the things which they had been learning how to do.

The writer's experiments are, to the best of his knowledge, the only ones which base inferences regarding the relative value of the compared techniques upon the results of a series of excursions—six in all—rather than of a single one. It is believed that added weight is given to the findings through the division of the study into two separate parts, A and B, which together involve substantially 104 rather than 52 records.

The results of the experimental evaluations which have been undertaken up to the present time show that the excursion used either alone or as a part of the class discussion method possesses value which is in many ways superior to that of the method with which it is compared; but much further experiment is needed to study not only its power to arouse interest and add to knowledge but also the many other values which are commonly attributed to it.

Chapter VII

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

THE purpose of the present study has been, as stated at the outset, (1) to discover, (2) to analyze, and (3) to some extent to evaluate various procedures, with a view to making available to teachers and administrators information which would enable them to achieve a more effective utilization of the educational opportunities that might be found inherent in the excursion technique.

1. The path followed in the attempt to *discover* has led through many lands and has disclosed various factors which in different places have brought the school excursion into being, shaped its national character, and made of it an instrument for particular ends.

2. The *analysis* of the procedures has thrown light upon numerous details of practices which are in current use, and has shown the flexibility of the method and its adaptability to numerous and varied purposes and conditions.

3. Examination of the *values* attributed to the excursion, whether attributed on the ground of personal experience and observation or of findings of the attempts at experimental measurement, has revealed a striking unanimity of conviction that the school excursion not only possesses a higher informative value than certain other instructional methods, but possesses also various superadded values, among which its capacity to stimulate interest and its social and socializing influences are perhaps paramount.

It is pertinent at this point to ask whether the effort which has been made in the preceding chapters to discover, analyze, and evaluate excursion procedures has been successful in contributing toward the expressed purpose of making accessible information concerning useful excursion techniques. Educational inferences and recommendations are such obvious corollaries from the stated findings, or are so clearly implicit in the findings themselves that they have not been set apart in a separate section. Recommendations based on the

findings must be recognized as subject to modification on the basis of such additional experimental evidence as may become available through future studies.

DISCOVERY OF PROCEDURES

1. *The educational excursion is far more extensively used in many European countries than it is in the United States.*

Both England and Germany, far apart as they are in educational philosophy and program, have incorporated the excursion into the regular work of the elementary, and, to some extent, into that of the secondary schools also. In Germany, a ministerial decree requires that one day in a month be used for an excursion in the elementary schools. Sweden makes participation in a stated number of excursions a condition of graduation from the elementary schools. The excursion is not compulsory in England, nor in Japan, but school authorities in both countries not only have recommended its use but also have taken steps to provide opportunity for it. In Italy and Russia, where education is very definitely under governmental control, the excursion is much in favor—and is made to serve militaristic and political as well as more purely academic ends, as it is also in Germany. The relation of the Youth Movement to the school excursion in Germany has been studied, and the strong impetus given to the excursion—in particular to the prolonged excursion—by the accommodations provided by the hostels has been noted. The German Youth Hostel Association began its work more than two decades before the establishment of the School Journey Association in England, but the latter also has done much to increase both the number and the length of school excursions.

2. *Considerable evidence exists to show that it is the German and English excursions, especially the former, which have in large part inspired the adoption of the excursion technique in this country.*

The influence of European educational theory and practice upon American students abroad, and, through them, upon educational practice in the United States, has been seen to be considerable—in particular the influence exerted by Van Liew and a few others who brought back from their continental study a profound enthusiasm

for the excursion idea, and bent every effort to extending its use in this country.

3. *The same types of excursions as are employed in England and Germany have been adopted, or adopted with modifications, in the United States.*

The "teaching walk," with its social purpose—similar to the "junior school journey" in England—finds its counterpart in the informal extra-curricular excursions of our various schools clubs; the German excursion for physical exercise and recreation—the English "walking journey"—is provided for in the health program of many of our schools; the German instructional excursion—England's "educational visit"—is the "school excursion" as defined for the purpose of the present study.

4. *A steadily accelerating increase in the use of the excursion method in the United States is generally observable from the time of its first appearance down to the present day.*

Despite various obstacles to its adoption in the United States, the excursion procedure has gradually but steadily made its way here. A survey in 1920 showed it to be rather widely used in the teaching of civics, and another survey a little later showed it in use in teaching about occupations. A study of extra-curricular excursions brought to light the fact that many and varied excursions are being made through school clubs, although such clubs do not exist in any large proportion of schools. Later studies confirm the general findings of the surveys just mentioned regarding the rather considerable use that is being made of the excursion, and show that it has been in some cases included in city courses of study, and that it is extensively employed in certain of the progressive and experimental schools.

Among the causes retarding the immediate and general acceptance of the excursion among other recognized teaching techniques in the United States were the facts that many of the needs which it meets were already in part provided for through the kind and conditions of life in this country, and through already existing organizations or clubs; and, further, that teachers whose own school days contained no stimulating excursion experiences, and whose training for teaching had included no preparation at all in the handling of classes under

excursion conditions or in the use of excursion material, were loath to venture into the unknown domain. In European countries opportunity for the theoretical examination and practical application of the excursion technique is provided in the pedagogical seminaries. It is probable that until the educational excursion takes rank with other methods of instruction in American normal school and college education courses, there is likely to be found persisting among teachers in United States a tendency to regard it as a somewhat radical and perhaps unnecessarily troublesome means of instruction.

5. *It is recommended that some form of central organization be established in the United States for the purpose of furthering the use of the excursion technique, and that its functions be defined in accordance with the suggestions given below.*

It is natural to expect that countries which have had long experience with the school excursion should have much to teach a country which is relatively a novice at handling it, and that certain conditions of its effective use and certain details of its practice in those countries might provide fruitful suggestion for those interested in seeing it more widely utilized here. In nearly all foreign countries which use the educational excursion definite steps to encourage its use have been taken either by the Ministry of Education or by some other national organization, for instance, the School Journey Association. In the United States no national organization interested in furthering the use of the excursion procedure exists. Except for occasional brief conferences at meetings of the National Education Association, and the publication of a bulletin and a questionnaire survey made under the direction of that organization, the school excursion has received little national attention or encouragement. It is, of course, the general policy in this country to leave problems of education as much as possible to the states themselves for solution, but for certain undertakings a central organization of some kind is of considerable value.

An organization for the promotion of excursions need not be under governmental control, and, as a matter of fact, no form whatsoever of federal control of education is either suggested or recommended here. National, regional, or state committees, however,

functioning as clearing houses for every kind of information that might help teachers to try out and to develop the excursion procedure, would meet a very definite need. Perhaps the National Education Association could provide such service through the appointment of a special committee to study the excursion in its various aspects, and report findings through its usual publicity channels—its journal and bulletins. Regional and state organizations could be of especial use in pointing out any opportunities for particularly valuable excursions within their territories.

Any such organization would need no connection with political groups or authorities, and should not itself have authority to impose the use of the excursion procedure. Its program would be limited essentially to the following fields: (a) the study of excursions and their values; (b) recommendations for their use in cases in which their value might seem to outweigh that of other procedures; (c) the detailed study of the long excursion, i.e., that of several days or more in duration; (d) the survey of educational opportunities afforded by excursions in different sections of the country; (e) negotiation with companies operating railroads, bus lines, boats, or other means of transportation for reduced fares for students travelling as a group; (f) investigation of suitable night accommodations; (g) the development of a mode of publicity adequate to make all pertinent information available to all teachers in the country. In these several ways, by gathering information of the kind indicated and bringing it to the attention of teachers and principals, a central organization, national, regional, or state, could supply data which would make it easy for all who wished to do so to try out the excursion plan for themselves, and could perhaps in the long run do almost as much to further the adoption of the excursion method as is achieved by ministerial requirement or encouragement in Europe.

6. *It is recommended that greater use be made of the excursion technique to develop an understanding of the principles and practice of democracy, and of the duties and privileges of citizenship, purposes to which the procedure lends itself especially well.*

The value of the excursion as it has been applied to instill love and reverence for country is very evident. All countries naturally use it

to further their educational policy and program; it is woven into the national pattern to contribute to the achievement of the national aims. The principles of democracy to which the United States is dedicated may be taught through the use of excursions quite as well as the political philosophy in foreign countries. A few studies made in this country have already indicated the value of the excursion technique in building ideals of citizenship, and yet its usefulness in this field is scarcely begun. It is undoubtedly true that the excursion offers great opportunity for the building of citizenship by making pupils acquainted with their country—its physical features, its resources, its places of historic interest, its great cities, its industrial achievements. The "Civics Afloat" plan of New York City which has been described earlier provides not only the vantage point of a moving "cruise ship" (ferry-boat) on its rivers and harbor to impart vividness to details of history, economics, and transportation, but must also stir the civic pride of pupils from the glimpse which it gives them of the greatness and architectural beauty of their city. Further studies of such particular use of the excursion may bring to light many opportunities for its application which have not yet been touched.

7. *It is recommended that educators and administrators study the excursion with a special view to its adoption as an integral part of the school curriculum.*

A rather clear-cut difference exists between the relation of the excursion to the curriculum in European countries and in the United States. In many schools in Europe—and in some of the more progressive ones in the United States—the curriculum is organized around the excursion, while in the majority of schools here the excursion is used rather incidentally, which perhaps means whenever it does not interfere with the curriculum or administrative organization. The choice of material to be included in the curriculum, its organization in the form of courses, or of activity programs, or programs of correlated subjects, and the selection of methods best adapted to the teaching of the curricular material are important and complicated problems. In working toward their solution the admirable results that have been obtained from making the excursion an

essential of the curricular organization both in European and in American schools may well be taken into consideration.

8. *It is recommended that the collection of material for school museums be made a definite aim of excursions which are appropriate for the purpose.*

The study of the European excursion furnish other suggestions for practices which might advantageously be incorporated into the excursion techniques in this country. One of them concerns the utilization of the excursion in connection with the establishment of school museums. Nearly every large school in Germany possesses a school museum, much as our schools possess a school library, in order to make illustrative material readily available. The museums may, in fact, almost be thought of as "libraries" of specimens. The incentive to begin a school collection or to add to it has often been furnished by an excursion made to some established museum to study its collections. In this country some science teachers have, through their field trips, built up valuable collections of minerals, plant specimens, and other materials, but no systematic movement toward the establishment of school museums is under way. The possible utilization of the school excursion for the purpose of collecting material for such museums might well be made the subject of detailed study.

9. *It is urged that careful consideration be given to possible means through which the valuable experiences offered through the Schullandheim and the exchange group plan may most readily be made available to secondary school children in the United States.*

Another suggestive feature of the German excursion is the *Schullandheim* or the "school country home." "Homes" of this kind are a part of the school system, and are occupied by various elementary school groups with their teachers for a month or more each during the year. They carry on a program of combined study and recreation. Our summer camps play a similar role, but their privileges are available by no means to all children, and it seems as if every child is entitled to a period of camp life as an educational experience. Perhaps our proposed central excursion committee might include advocacy of "camp experiences for every child" among the problems

which have been suggested for it to undertake! The plan would be essentially only an extension of the provision of playground teachers and recreational leaders already widely in use in our cities.

Another European plan which springs from the idea that children ought to be given the opportunity to live and work together as in the school-owned *Schullandheim* proposes the formation of "exchange groups" which might change places for short intervals with groups from other cities or towns, or from rural districts, in order to obtain an idea of the living and working conditions elsewhere than in their own homes and communities. The exchange plan, familiar to us in connection with students of college age, is entitled to consideration for such advantages as it may have to offer to pupils of secondary level, but to what extent it is applicable in this country to the younger groups, remains yet to be determined. Perhaps some of the advantages of the idea without some of its drawbacks may be realized through "studying on wheels," a name given to the plan of having pupils live in suitably equipped busses for a more or less prolonged period of travel, during which they are subjected to frequent changes of environment and are instructed through a program which is woven around the places which are visited and the experiences which can be obtained in them.

10. *It is advised that school authorities cooperate with the hostel association, utilizing its proffered facilities in connection with excursion programs whenever possible to do so.*

A hostel association, patterned after the German organization, has been formed in this country, and has already established a chain of some seventy-five hostels in the New England states, and a smaller number in other states. Although this association has no official connection with the schools, the directors have extended an invitation to all educational institutions to use the hostels, and classes which have been making excursions have occasionally availed themselves of the privilege. The *Hostel Handbook*, which may be obtained from the National Headquarters, American Youth Hostels, Inc., Northfield, Massachusetts, lists the names and locations of hostels, and contains helpful suggestions regarding their use. Gradual increase in hostel facilities may be expected to bring about here, as elsewhere, an in-

crease in the number of prolonged excursions undertaken. The low cost of hostel accommodation is within the reach of nearly every secondary pupil, and the establishment of additional hostels is proceeding rapidly. A study might well be made of the ways in which they might be most advantageously used in connection with school excursion programs.

11. *It is suggested that the prolonged excursion be studied in detail, under very careful experimental conditions, in order to determine to what extent it may seem advisable to introduce such type of excursion as a part, perhaps a very large part, of the school program.*

Excursions of a week or more in length undoubtedly offer many difficulties to surmount, but many that may seem insuperable have already been successfully surmounted in other countries. It may well be that in time the prolonged excursions will become recognized as so highly desirable that certain periods will be set apart during the elementary and secondary school programs to permit of excursions lasting for a week or more, and one may be allowed to let his imagination play with the idea of a day in which regional or even national trips will be a matter of commonplace occurrence, recognized as one of the very best among accepted educational methods. Telfer writes regarding such fancies:

The imagination is fired at the inspiration for future study of American history, geography and literature in a network of American Youth Hostels planned to embrace surviving landmarks of the early colonial settlements along the Atlantic seaboard, of the Indian pueblo villages of the Southwest, the missions of Southern California and Florida, plantation life in the deep South; to follow the trails blazed by Daniel Boone, the pioneers in covered wagons, the gold rush; to give access to the scenic wonderlands of our Grand Canyon, Yosemite, Yellowstone, Glacier and other National Parks.¹

The longer excursions planned for by the British School Journey Association include continental tours and tours of the British colonies. This Association has expressed a strong conviction that it is desirable for every student, by the time he has completed his university work, to have had experience of one or more of these long trips in addition to numerous experiences with the other simpler, local excursions and with the countrywide types.

¹ G. G. Telfer, "Youth Follows New Trails," *Parents' Magazine*, 10: 65, 1935.

Another plea for the long excursion for children in the United States is made by Borgeson, who suggests that

. . . every elementary school child in America should have his schooling enriched by at least one well planned and meaningful school trip or excursion each month of his elementary school career. At first they are very short but as the child grows older a single trip begins to consume a much larger portion of the day until the point is reached when in the upper elementary grades they should include excursions of more than one day's duration. The latter type implies getting away from home, probably for the first time, and staying away from home at night, probably for the first time. Such experiences, under careful joint guidance and protection by parents and school teachers, are easier to initiate during pre-adolescence than at the time of adolescence. The danger of moral hazards is much lower at this time.²

It is apparent that the long excursion can be made to serve the purposes of almost any field of subject-matter. The study of various influences affecting man, the comparison of industrial and agricultural areas, of town or country life and city life, of housing, occupations, problems growing out of contacts between peoples of different racial strains, topographic and climatic influences, and innumerable other topics suggest themselves immediately among the subjects for which the long excursion might provide abundant data. The long excursion is theoretically most interesting as an illustration of the attempt to provide, under conditions demanding mass education, some of the experiences of travel which have long been held desirable, and to provide these experiences more systematically and with a clearer awareness of their potential influence than existed when travel was the privilege of the few.

ANALYSIS OF PROCEDURES

The analysis of the questionnaire data on details of present practice among teachers and principals using the excursion procedure in their classes or schools has brought out a number of facts which bear upon any efforts that may be made to develop excursion techniques, and points also to several matters which stand in urgent need of further study. Recommendations based on the findings must be recognized as subject to modification in the light of such further experimental evidence as may become available.

² F. C. Borgeson, *Group-Interest Activities*, Vol. 2, p. 19, 1931.

1. *The excursion technique is applicable in all departmental fields, and in schools of all sizes.*

One question upon which light was sought was the suitability of the excursion procedure for schools of different sizes. The findings show that excursions are carried out in almost equal numbers by schools of all sizes, and that there is but little difference in the proportion of those made in connection with the work of different departments whether the school be large or small. Although the number of excursions made is generally highest among the science departments, and then, successively, in connection with the departments of social studies, commercial studies, and practical arts, one must judge from the findings that the method is apparently used in conjunction with any field of subject-matter, and is, by inference, adaptable to the purposes of all subjects. It may be that opportunities for excursions in conjunction with work in mathematics and languages—the departmental fields in which they are found to be made least frequently—are more difficult to discover than in other fields. Since, however, the findings show little evidence to support the contention that an excursion procedure does not lend itself well to the needs of some subjects, it may be recommended that principals and teachers give consideration to the possibility of its use in the teaching of every subject.

2. *Prevalent usage places practically all administrative responsibility for the excursion in the hands of the teacher.*

So far as organization of the excursion is concerned, it is found that the teacher is usually the responsible administrative officer, and that he arranges the details of the excursion with the help of the class. When excursions are obligatory, as is the case in several foreign countries and in a few schools in this country, some school or city administrative officer is needed to supervise and coordinate them, but so long as they are chosen by an individual teacher to be made when they seem likely to contribute to a topic which he is developing, and are fitted into a school program as they are needed, it seems an advantage as shown by the findings on this point to leave the teacher in sole charge.

3. *The usual role of the principal in an excursion program is that of "cooperative assistant" to the teacher.*

Such an arrangement as is indicated in the preceding paragraph does not exclude a principal, or other school officer, from usefulness in making contact with the necessary authorities, engaging transportation, or giving any other kind of assistance which the teacher may desire. But it does, so far as the immediate administration of a particular excursion is concerned, subordinate his role definitely to that of the teacher. He has a valuable part to play in encouraging the use of excursions, obtaining information that will be useful, and, often, of securing any needed authorization from superintendent or others. The arrangement suggested, making the principal a kind of "contact man," is the one most often met with, and is recommended as that likely to produce the most satisfactory results.

4. *A school committee for the promotion of the excursion technique can do much to further its adoption.*

A school committee may often, in the case of any particular excursion, assume the performance of the helpful tasks which often devolve upon the principal. The most valuable work, however, which can be undertaken by such a committee, especially in a city school, is probably a survey of available opportunities for excursions of different kinds, and an investigation of the preliminary arrangements which it may be necessary to make before they can be carried out.

5. *Adequate provision for protecting pupils from injury and of teachers from liability for such possible injury is prerequisite to widespread adoption of the excursion technique.*

Two important problems in need of additional study arise in connection with the transportation to be utilized for any excursion, its safety and its cost. Safety, under the circumstances, has a dual meaning: it refers, as might be expected, to the actual protection from physical hazards of both pupils and teacher; but it applies also to protection of teacher, school, or central authority from claim for injuries received by a pupil during the trip. The heavy responsibility which some states impose upon teachers and schools for the safety of pupils effectually curbs the use of the excursion procedure. A study of state laws bearing on the liability of teachers and of means

for insuring teachers adequate protection from claims for damages has been undertaken. The data from such a study will be of much value, and should lead to some clearer ideas regarding the importance of having the teachers themselves carry insurance against such claims, or of having the Board of Education carry insurance for them, or of the necessity of securing a relinquishment of claim from parents prior to granting permission to any pupil to take part in an excursion. It is, of course, assumed that every precaution within reason will be taken by those in charge of an excursion to avoid accident.

6. *Provision in school budgets for expenses of transportation, the chief item of excursion costs, is essential to the full use of the technique.*

In connection with the problem of safety another question also arises. In many cases transportation is by means of chartered bus. The condition of busses and the reliability of drivers must, of course, be vouched for by responsible persons. If school busses are used to transport children to and from school, these may be called upon under certain conditions to convey groups to and from a museum or park. Such use of a school bus removes the burden of the cost of a trip from pupils. It has the disadvantage of preventing excursions from being scheduled at the most appropriate hours because the bus transporting the excursion group would be needed to return pupils to their homes at a time too likely to conflict with the hours suitable for the excursion. Provision of additional busses would help to solve the problem. It is recommended that Boards of Education seriously consider whether the provision of such school transportation for excursion groups is not a definite part of their responsibility. Today costs of laboratory equipment are accepted as a necessary and legitimate expense, and if the value of the excursion can be shown to be equal to that of the laboratory it would seem logical for its cost also to be included in the school budget. Teachers cannot make participation in an excursion obligatory so long as its expense must be borne by the family of the pupils.

7. *Tacit recognition of the value of the excursion technique is paid by the very frequent placement of excursions within school hours,*

but widespread need exists for sufficient curricular reorganization to make this generally possible.

Another development that would automatically be effected by the recognition of the "laboratory value" of excursions is the appropriation of time for them during school hours. As a matter of fact, at the present time about twice as many schools make excursions during school hours as in the late afternoon or on Saturdays; but present schedules in a great many schools are such as to make the utilization of school hours for the excursions quite out of question. Again, perhaps solution of the problems may demand as a prerequisite the general recognition of the excursion technique as equally valuable with other methods, and therefore equally worthy of school time even at cost of considerable curricular reorganization.

8. *The common practice of making the excursion a cooperative undertaking of class and teacher points to awareness of the value of the technique as a means for teaching how to work with others for a common end.*

Study of the organization of excursions has brought into relief certain tendencies in procedure, among which perhaps the outstanding one is to make the excursion very definitely a cooperative enterprise of teacher and pupils, with the responsibility for arrangements within pupils' capacity placed definitely upon their shoulders, and responsibility for ultimate supervision assumed by the teacher. Granting pupils an active share in preparing for an excursion at once begets a sense of what might be termed "proprietaryship" toward it, and evokes the same kind of response as normally attaches to particular personal possessions. The excursion becomes in a sense "their" excursion. Similarly, playing an active role at its destination—whether by note-taking, drawing, or some other means—creates an attitude more to be desired than that so readily acquired by pupils playing the part of merely passive listeners. The findings indicate that the excursion technique offers an especially good opportunity to make clear the value of cooperative endeavor.

9. *Suitable preparation for the experiences of the excursion and retrospective emphasis on the highlights are generally accepted as essentials of a successful technique.*

Preparatory instruction has been found to be an essential part of any excursion plan. It is carried on in general by class discussion, supplemented by assigned reading, oral or written reports, and the development of individual or group projects. The same methods are used in retrospective study which is made of the excursion. The purpose of the preparatory study is to provide the background required to enable pupils to observe carefully and intelligently at the museum, industrial plant, or other objective of the trip; and that of the retrospective summing-up is to clarify obscure points and to knit the excursion experiences closely into the topic which they were designed to illustrate. Care is needed to avoid allowing the after-study to become a mere tedious reiteration of details of the excursion rather than a demonstration of the relation of its essential experiences to the topic as a whole. The comparative values of particular methods of preparation might well form the subjects of useful studies.

10. *Minute preparation of all details, and extremely definite direction of pupils' attention, are especially important factors in insuring maximum achievement from any excursion.*

The need of extreme definiteness of preparation of every detail receives repeated emphasis on the questionnaire returns. Intelligent observation demands much definiteness in the direction of attention to objects or activities which are to be the subjects of study. A question-list, guide-sheet, or "log," prepared in advance, is sometimes used at the destination. Official guides are there often relied on to give instruction, but teachers adequately equipped for the task possess an advantage over the guides in the acquaintance with pupils' background and capacity which they possess. Although the practice of granting entire freedom to pupils to select their own subjects for study on an excursion, especially on a museum trip, is infrequent, a certain measure of freedom to follow out individual interests is frequently allowed and seems advisable.

The amount of time devoted to a trip is of necessity variable. The fact, however, that the majority of the excursions reported seem to be made within a two-hour interval suggests the value of limiting the study time at the destination to a period lying within a reasonable attention span for the group and subject. A study of the optimum

length for visits, especially on the longer excursions on which several may be paid in a single day, would be of value.

11. *Flexibility of procedure is found, and is to be desired, in the preparation of the class for the excursion, in the plan followed at its destination, and in the kind of use made of the excursion in subsequent class work.*

Absolute uniformity in planning for excursions is, of course, not to be expected because of the varieties in their aims and character, and in the conditions under which they are made. Although the procedures discussed in this study have been brought together from an extensive examination of the literature and from the analysis of some 600 questionnaire returns, future investigation will undoubtedly disclose more detail which may be of help to those who wish to experiment for themselves with an excursion technique.

EVALUATION OF THE METHOD

1. *A very wide range of values is claimed for the excursion technique in the literature.*

The power of the excursion to increase interest, deepen capacity for appreciation, develop accuracy and keenness in observing, secure a longer retention of knowledge acquired by its means, provide opportunity for development of initiative, leadership, sense of responsibility, independence of judgment, and to afford experience of the social adjustments involved in planning and carrying out a group enterprise, all these and many more recur repeatedly expressed in many different ways among the advantages attributed to the method. Often the grounds of belief for its superiority were stated or implied, but more often, not. An effort was therefore made to secure from teachers using the method an expression of opinion regarding its main values, together with the grounds on which their opinion was based. For this purpose, the opinions of its value met in the literature were analyzed and classified, and a selected list submitted to a group of teachers on a questionnaire with a request that they rank the values listed in order of importance. The same questionnaire asked for information regarding the kind of evidence

upon which the teacher based his judgment of the value of the excursions which he had made.

2. *Values assigned to the excursion method on two-thirds or more of the returns from a questionnaire are: awakening of interest and appreciation in the field of study and in related fields; provision of the concrete, first-hand experiences which give direct and personal knowledge of the environment; development of keenness and accuracy in observation; and longer retention of the knowledge acquired through its means than of that gained under other methods of instruction.*

Teachers' judgments of the value of the technique were based upon their observations of the increase of interest displayed in class work, the increase in the number of books and references that were read and projects that were carried out, on the fact that the excursion led pupils to undertake additional trips on their own initiative, and on the results of tests of knowledge.

3. *Grinstead's experimental evaluation of the excursion showed it far superior to all the other methods of supplementing class instruction with which he compared it.*

The search for a means to gauge the value of the excursion technique on grounds other than opinion, however widely maintained and logically supported, led to Grinstead's attack upon the problem of experimental evaluation of the procedure. Grinstead carried out, under carefully controlled conditions, four experiments with matched groups in classes in commercial geography in a junior high school, in order to compare the values of the excursion and of some other instructional procedures.

The topics chosen for the experiment were the dairy industry, wicker-ware manufacture, the meat-packing industry, and the manufacture of automobile tires. The excursion procedure was substantially the same in all the experiments; the classroom study and discussion was supplemented in a different way in each experiment—by a class demonstration, by motion pictures, by study of library references, and by a "seminar." Grinstead found that in every instance the excursion technique proved by far superior to the method with which it was compared. He found also that the gain in knowl-

edge was greater for superior than for average pupils, and that it showed particularly in their answers to questions of the essay type. Grinstead lists many other values—"non-statistical results" he terms them—which he believes that excursion to possess. These values include, among others, its capacity to increase interest in school work, to assist in the clarification of principles and in the organization of knowledge, to develop an attitude of increased cooperativeness, and to aid in the merging of school life into community life. The fact that Grinstead's experiments were pioneer studies in a new field—that of the experimental comparison of instructional procedures—and that they disclosed a number of related problems which awaited solution have given them added value for the student of the excursion technique.

4. *The two experiments, A and B, made in conjunction with the present study show that the excursion as a supplement to class discussion leads to the acquisition of more factual knowledge and greater interest than class discussion alone.*

In the two experiments which were undertaken as a part of the present study, the increase in factual knowledge, the specific type of knowledge acquired, and the increase in interest produced by the use of an excursion technique and by the usual class discussion procedure without the excursion have been compared. Although the testing of an educational technique as used above involves many variables, it is believed that the care which was used to control the experimental conditions has been sufficient to make the results significant.

The two experiments comprise six excursions and 104 records—52 from each experiment. The class discussion procedure was used for the instruction of the control group (Group I) and the excursion technique for the experimental group (Group II). Differences in the amount of knowledge acquired through the two methods were measured by information tests on the subject-matter of the experiment; differences in the particular kinds of information better acquired by one or the other procedure were studied through an item analysis of the tests; differences in the interest aroused were studied by means of an interest questionnaire constructed for the purpose.

5. *The information acquired by the excursion group in Experiment A is by actual measurement greater than that acquired by the discussion group.*
6. *The information acquired by the excursion group in Experiment B exceeds by an amount greater than that found in Experiment A the information acquired by the discussion group.*

The gain in both Experiment A and Experiment B is sufficiently great to indicate that it is statistically significant and could not have occurred by chance.

7. *The item analysis of the information tests shows little difference in the particular kinds of information acquired under the two procedures.*

In general the discussion group shows higher scores on items requiring knowledge of details of the kind most likely to be found in the textbook—dates, military struggles, names of geological or dynastic periods usually encountered in relation to one another in a printed list. The excursion group makes somewhat higher records on items calling for comparisons, for general descriptions of places or objects, or for knowledge of recent archaeological discoveries. The difference between the records of the two groups on items requiring particular kinds of information are, however, not sufficiently definite or sufficiently large to permit of any inference regarding the superiority of either technique for instruction in any particular kind of material.

8. *The results of the interest questionnaire show that the excursion technique produces a definite increase of interest in the things associated with the excursion experiences, and the discussion procedure an increase of interest in the things associated with the class instruction.*

The excursion group shows a greater increase of interest in visiting museums, places of local historical interest, and the countries which had been studied than does the discussion group; and the latter a greater increase of interest than the excursion group in the reading of books—perhaps because of the increased ease in handling books acquired through the reference work assigned during the experiment.

Practically no difference exists between the increase in the desire of the two groups to see historical motion pictures—possibly because neither group had any experience with such pictures during the experiment. The results of the interest questionnaire support the hypothesis that pupils' interest is increased in those things which they have learned to do successfully, and that the character of the learning experience is of greater importance in creating interest than is the subject-matter.

Owing to the recency of the application of the experimental method in the present field of study, and to the complexity of the problems involved, data on which to base generalizations are as yet extremely limited. The application of the experimental method of measurement to many of the procedures which have been studied in previous chapters is urgently needed in order to provide adequate ground to justify the widely held conviction of the superiority of the excursion method for teaching purposes.

9. *All evidence now available points to the fact that, within the limits of the experiments, the excursion technique is a more valuable adjunct by far to class discussion than are any of the methods which have been studied in comparison with it.*

Studies of excursions prolonged over several days are much needed, as are also studies of the values claimed for the excursion other than its rather striking success in aiding in the acquisition of knowledge. Such values do not readily lend themselves to experimental evaluation, yet they are, in the judgment of many, the most important which the excursion possesses.

The purpose of the present study has been to make available information which might lead to the more effective use of the excursion technique in teaching. This purpose has been kept steadfastly in view throughout the exploration along three different routes which has been made in pursuit of it. Each of these routes—historical, questionnaire, experimental—has provided fact and suggestion which seem to invite and encourage teachers to make the method their own. All who do so will need to remember that they are exploring a field which is still new. There is nothing final in the procedures and suggestions which have been offered. There is limit-

less flexibility and adaptability to the method. The preceding chapters have done little more than turn the top soil of the field which has buried in it a wealth of new material to reward the teacher who finds himself challenged rather than daunted by such problems as beset the path of any pioneer. The pooling of the discoveries of many explorers may well serve as a foundation for a plan of education, which, recognizing the acquirement of knowledge as a means rather than as an end, and using the excursion technique as much for its other values as for its success in adding to information, may prove a far more satisfactory preparation for the child's future as a member of society than are any of the educational techniques which have yet been proposed.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

THE USE OF THE SCHOOL EXCURSION AS A METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE PRINCIPAL

Name of School City State
 Enrollment: Boys Girls Total Grades Inclusive
 Type of School, (i.e. Academic, Commercial) Size of City
 Person reporting Position Date

Directions: The school excursion as used here is a definitely organized trip taken as a part of classroom instruction, although not necessarily taken during the class period. Indicate by a check (✓) in the proper space your answer to each of the following questions. This questionnaire is to include the school year, September 1935 to June 1936. The answers given are to indicate the general procedure that has been followed. In case of wide variation of practice concerning any question, a special note explaining it will be helpful. Additional comments may be made on the back of this sheet.

1. How many excursions have been taken by each department in the school?

Departments	Total number of excursions taken by each department				
	Over 15	14-10	9-5	4-1	None
(1) English					
(2) Language					
(3) Science					
(4) Mathematics					
(5) Social Studies					
(6) Commercial					
(7) Practical Arts					
(8) Music					
(9) Art					
(10) Others					

2. What are the types of places visited on these excursions? a. factories . . . ; b. stores, shops . . . ; c. museums . . . ; d. municipal buildings . . . ; e. historical landmarks . . . ; f. parks . . . ; g. theaters . . . ; h. country field trips . . . ; i. others
3. By whom is the permission secured and arrangements made with those in charge of the place to be visited? a. by the principal . . . ; b. by other ad-

- ministrative officers ...; c. by the teacher ...; d. by the school or city committee ...; e. by the pupils ...; f. by others
4. Is there a school committee for supervision and promotion of trips?
a. yes ...; b. no
- Is a written report required of the teacher following each excursion?
c. yes ...; d. no
5. How is the cost of transportation and other expenses met? a. by the Board of Education . .; b. by P. T. A. or other community organizations ...; c. by student organization as the student council or clubs ...; d. by each pupil ...; e. by other means
6. Does the school or the Board of Education carry insurance to protect themselves in case of accident? a. yes ...; b. no Does the school require a waiver from the pupils' parents assuming responsibility for the pupils' safety? c. yes . . , d. no . . .
7. What means of transportation is ordinarily used? a. train ...; b. bus ...; c. streetcar ...; d. automobile ..; e. walking ...; f. other means
- When are the excursions usually taken? a. during school hours ...; b. after school hours ...; c. on Saturdays ...; d. other times
8. Do you wish a copy of the report of this investigation?

Your kindness in filling out this questionnaire is greatly appreciated. Please return, together with the questionnaires filled in by your teachers, in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope, Henry C. Atyeo, White Plains High School, White Plains, New York.

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS

Name of School City State
Person Reporting Subjects Taught Grades

This questionnaire is to bring together information concerning the use and value of the school excursion in order that it may be studied as a method of instruction. It is being made under the personal direction of Professor Maxie Woodring of Teachers College, Columbia University, who is serving as sponsor of the problem.

Your cooperation in answering each of the following questions will provide a basis for the evaluation of present practice and the development of an excursion technique. Your kindness in meeting this request is deeply appreciated.

Directions: Indicate by a check (✓) or a short answer your practice or judgment regarding each of the following questions. This questionnaire is to include the school year, September 1935 to June 1936. The answers given are to indicate the general procedure that has been followed. In case of wide variation of practice concerning any question, a special note explaining it will be helpful. The school excursion as used here is a definitely organized trip taken as part of classroom instruction, although not necessarily taken during the class period.

1. Indicate the classes which you have taught and the excursions which have been taken.

Classes taught	No. of trips taken	Average no. of pupils per trip	Places visited
(1)			
(2)			
(3)			
(4)			
(5)			
(6)			
(7)			
(8)			
Total			

- 2 Below are listed several values gained in taking excursions. Select five you have found to be outcomes of the trips you have taken and number them 1 through 5 in order of importance.

- (1) . . . provides for concrete, first-hand experiences which result in a direct and personal knowledge of the environment
- (2) . . . provides opportunity for a pupil to become a responsible member of a definite group through which he learns to think, plan, execute and evaluate in terms of a group as well as in terms of his own interests.
- (3) . . . awakens interest and appreciation in the field being studied and in related fields.
- (4) . . . gives opportunity for expression of initiative and the development of leadership.
- (5) . . . develops keenness and accuracy of observation.
- (6) . . . secures longer retention of knowledge.
- (7) . . . contributes to development of leisure-time activities.
- (8) . . . promotes an understanding between teachers and members of the group.
- (9) . . . utilizes the natural curiosity of the pupil and makes possible the joy of discovery.
- (10) . . . provides opportunity for development of a vocational interest.
- (11) . . . Other values

3. By whom are each of the following items determined in planning an excursion?

	Planned by			
	Teacher	Class and teacher	Class as a group	Class Committee
(1) Purposes of excursion				
(2) Type, i.e., to a store				
(3) Place, i.e., Macy's store				
(4) Details, i.e., time, rules				
(5) Others				

4. What preparation for the excursion is made by the pupils? a. excursion is discussed in detail ...; b. books related to the excursion are read ...; c. topics are assigned and studied ...; d. individual pupil projects are planned ...; e. other means
5. What type of instruction is given while at the place visited? a. a special guide explains points of interest ...; b. teacher explains points of interest ...; c. a printed guide-sheet suggests things to be observed ...; d. pupils free to select for themselves things to be noted ...; e. other means
6. What evaluation is made of the excursion? a. no special mention of it other than usual class discussion of unit being studied ...; b. details of the excursion discussed ...; c. oral reports given to the class ...; d. written reports on stories handed in ...; e. individual projects required ...; f. test given which covers information gained by the excursion ...; g. other means
7. What concrete evidence have you that the excursions you have directed have been worthwhile? a. increase of knowledge as indicated by results of tests ...; b. individual projects are carried out, i.e., illustrated notebook, building models ...; c. more books are read ...; d. more interest shown in class discussions and daily work ...; e. individual pupils take additional excursions ...; f. other means
8. Do all the pupils in the class go on the excursion? a. Yes ...; b. No ...; If not, why don't they? c. lack of interest ...; d. cost too much ...; e. other conflicting interests...; f. parents object to pupil going ...; g. other reasons
9. How long are pupils at the place visited? a. less than an hour ...; b. 1-2 hours ...; c. half day ...; d. all day ...; e. more than day
10. What is the usual number of pupils taken on an excursion? a. 40-51 ...; b. 30-41 ...; c. 20-31 ...; d. 10 or less

11. List any suggestions you may feel to be helpful in the organization of excursions
-
-
-
-
-

Kindly return this completed blank to the Principal. Your contribution makes it possible to study this problem more accurately and completely
Thank you for your cooperation H. C. Atyeo

INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

Name Period Date

I. Selection of books.

Below are the names of twenty books related in some way to history
Many or perhaps all of these are new to you, yet you are asked to judge
from the titles the names of five you think you would most enjoy reading
Place a figure 1 before each of the five you select

Select five others you think you would least enjoy reading and place a 0
before each.

1....	Hall, J	Buried Cities
2....	Anderson, C.	Through Africa with Livingstone
3.. .	Dickens, C.	The Tale of Two Cities
4....	Carter, H	The Tomb of Tutankhamen
5....	Holbrook, F.	Cave, Mound and Lake Dwellers
6....	Chamberlain, L	The New Russia
7....	Skinner, A.	The Indians of Manhattan Island
8....	Mills, D.	Story of the Ancient Greeks
9....	Dumas, A	The Three Musketeers
10....	Hopwell, D.	The Archaeologist at Work
11.. .	Tappan, A.	In the Days of Queen Elizabeth
12. .	Grinfred, M	Boats of the Ancient World
13....	Gunther, J	The Four Dictators
14....	Henri, G.	Hitler over Europe
15...	Breasted, H	A History of Egypt
16....	Burton, J.	The Land of Palestine
17....	Ludwig, M.	Napoleon
18....	Davis, W.	A Day in Old Athens
19....	Wilson, T.	The World War Past
20....	Appleby, J.	Tombs Along the Nile

II. Selection of Movies

Select from the following list of movies the five that you think you
would most enjoy seeing. Place a figure 1 before each of the five you
choose. Place a 0 before each of the five that you would care least to see.

	Name	Theme of the Picture
1....	The Queen	Egyptian Queen Hatsheput
2..	Home on Your Shield	Persian Wars
3....	Behind the Lines	World War
4....	Darkness Falls	South Sea Adventures
5....	The Sirens Call	Mythological Greek Story
6....	The Kings Tribute	French Nobility
7....	A Million Years of History	Romance in Different Ages
8....	The Captain of the Isles	Greek Civil Wars
9....	Digging Up the Past	Archaeology
10....	Westward to Freedom	American Pioneers
11...	Utopia	Perfect Civilization
12....	By Sail and Oar	Mediterranean Sea Story
13....	Abraham of Ur	Jewish Leader, Abraham
14....	The Lost World	Prehistoric Animals
15....	A Peddlars Fortune	French Revolution
16....	Battle of Jutland	Sea Battle of World War
17....	The Mummy Speaks	Egyptian Mystery Killing
18....	The Seven Seas	Travelogue around the World
19....	Forsaken	Romance in the '80
20....	Happy Hunting Grounds	Indian Adventures

III Selection of Countries

Select the five of the following countries that you would most like to visit to learn of the history of the country Place a figure 1 before each of them. Place a 0 before the five that you would care least to visit.

1... England	8.... Iraq	15.... United States
2.... South Africa	9.... Russia	(the west)
3.... Greece	10.... Mexico	16.... Argentine
4... Spain	11.. Alaska	17.... Asia Minor
5.... Italy	12.. Palestine	18.... Arabia
6.... Crete	13.... China	19.... Peru
7.... Egypt	14.... Ethiopia	20.... India

IV. Selection of places of historical interest

Select the five places you desire most to visit and place a figure 1 before each that you choose. Place a 0 before the five that you care least about visiting

1.. Washington's Headquarters	11.. Spanish Museum
2.... Indian Caves in New York	12.... Stock Exchange
3.... Zoo	13.... Aquarium
4.... Planetarium	14.... Borden's Creamery
5.... Cathedral of St. Johns	15.... Museum of Natural History
6.... The Cloisters (Medieval Art)	16.... Empire State Building
7.... Plumi Indian Store	17.... Columbia University
8.... Metropolitan Museum	18.... Museum of Hebrew Art
9.... American Indian Museum	19.... Chinese Temple
10.... Radio City	20.... Greek Theater

TEST USED IN EXPERIMENT A

THE BEGINNINGS OF CIVILIZATION

PART I*

Directions. Complete each of the following statements by inserting the correct word or phrase in each blank.

- 1 The first people that lived in the world were called people They were first found along the and rivers. They lived in (kind of homes) or Their method of getting food was that of The weapons they used were mostly made of Several important things that were invented by these people included and
- 2 Before and during the age that these early people lived many large animals lived. The largest family of these animals was the family. The fiercest animal was Some of the largest skeletons of these animals show us that they were as long as, and as high as Such an animal weighed as much as tons. Most of them ate (flesh or vegetation). Skeletons of many of the largest animals have been found in (place) and
3. We have found few skeletons of early man Of those found, four of the most important ones are the,,, and The one which looks most like man of the present time is
- 4 Egypt is located along the river in the part of Africa. Its civilization flourished from (centuries) to The river overflowed times a year and thus helped the people by The first period of Egyptian government or history is known as; the second period is The most important position in the country was that of We have found a great many things that the Egyptians used because The largest collection of these in this country is in (museum), the largest collection in the world is in
5. The most popular recently discovered tomb has been that of It was discovered by, and was located in Most of the things taken from it have been kept in the (museum). The estimated value of the objects in that tomb is
- 6 Cleopatra's needle is an, located in It is about feet high
7. The people who lived in the Tigris-Euphrates valley were the and Their writing is called and may be described as They wrote on while the Egyptians wrote on Most of their statues resemble a One difference in their art and that of Egypt is
- 8 The people who lived on the Crete were called Their most beautiful city was They made a living by We are indebted to them for

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PART II

Directions: Select the correct answer to each of the following and place the letter of that answer in the space at the left

- 1 The new stone age in which shaped weapons were used is called (A Alloy Age, B Dinosaur Age, C Neolithic Age, D Palaeolithic Age). 1
- 2 Bronze was used chiefly for (A. tools, B decorations, C jewelry, D. boats) 2
3. False doors found in tombs were (A to deceive robbers, B for decorations, C to let Osiris come in the tomb, D to let the spirit go out). 3
- 4 We know barley was grown in early Egypt because (A it is mentioned on the Rosetta stone, B it is still raised there, C. the seed has been found, D the land was fertile). 4
5. Copper mines were first worked in (A Asia Minor, B. Egypt, C Greece, D Babylonia). 5
- 6 We believe the calendar was invented in (A. Babylonia, B Egypt, C. Palestine, D. Crete). 6
7. The chief Egyptian God was (A. Osiris, B Ra, C. Khufu, D Horus) 7
8. The people that settled in Mesopotamia were (A Arabians, B. Hamites, C Semites, D Syrians) 8
- 9 The chief occupation of the Egyptians was (A. fighting, B. trading, C. manufacturing by hand, D. farming) 9
10. The Hebrews lived in (A Palestine, B Phoenicia, C. Greece, D Assyria). 10
11. The Assyrians contributed (A. alphabet, B. use of metal, C. domestication of horses, D. sword) 11
- 12 The Book of the Dead was (A. a list of dead Pharaohs, B. the Egyptian Bible, C. a history of early Egypt, D. an account of things done by a person). 12
13. The country to conquer all of the known world was (A. Persia, B. Greece, C Palestine, D. Egypt). 13
14. The Indian civilization in South America was (A. Mayan, B. Aztec, C Toltec, D. Inca). 14
15. Many of our present food plants were first used by (A. Egyptians, B. American Indians, C. Greeks, D. Hebrews). 15

PART III

Directions: Define, in the space provided, each of the following

1. dynasty
2. mummy
3. cylinder seal
4. mammoth

5. sphinx
6. scribe
7. Stonehenge
8. demotic
9. sarcophagus
- 10 Rosetta stone

PART IV (DAVES TEST)

EARLY BEGINNINGS

Directions. Below are a number of statements, in each of which are parentheses containing five expressions. One of these expressions completes the statement so as to make it more fully true than does any one of the other four. Indicate which one of the five expressions is the correct one by copying its letter on the short blank line at the right of the statement

Example. Prehistoric man lived in (A. caves, B. villages, C trees, D houses, E. boats) A

- 1 The chief sources of unrecorded history are (A. deserted villages, B written records, C. remains and relics, D traditions, E myths). 1
- 2 The longest age in history was probably that called (A. New Stone, B Ice, C Bronze, D. Old Stone, E. Iron). 2
- 3 Settlement in permanent homes and communities was made possible for early man by the (A. development of a language, B use of the bow and arrow, C. use of fire, D. invention of tools, E cultivation of the soil) 3
- 4 Better means of transportation was provided for early man by (A. taming of animals, B. building of huts, C use of flint tools, D. art of pottery, E. weaving of cloth). 4
- 5 Civilization developed first in river valleys because (A such lands could support a large population, B level land is easily defended, C early peoples were ignorant of irrigation systems, D deserts surrounded the valleys, E. rivers are highways of transportation) 5
- 6 The prosperity of Egypt depended upon its (A. religion, B. knowledge of fine arts, C. irrigation system, D. slavery, E commerce). 6
- 7 Pharaoh was the title of the ruler of (A. Assyria, B Babylonia, C. Palestine, D. Egypt, E. Persia). 7
- 8 The belief in one God is known as (A polytheism, B. paganism, C. Judaism, D monotheism, E. Buddhism). 8
- 9 The Egyptian sun-god was (A Re, B. Amon, C Menes, D. Ahuramazda, E. Jupiter). 9
- 10 The first solar calendar was made by (A Egyptians, B. Greeks, C Babylonians, D. Phoenicians, E. Hebrews) 10
- 11 The greatest gift of the Hebrews to civilization was the (A. wealth of Solomon, B. temple at Jerusalem, C. belief in one God, D organization of government, E. art of pottery). 11

- 12 Egyptians made paper by (A. using rag pulp, B. connecting strips of papyrus, C. scraping thin the skins of animals, D. splitting oak bark, E. weaving fine linen) 12
13. The most warlike of the ancient peoples were the (A. Babylonians, B. Phoenicians, C. Egyptians, D. Assyrians, E. Hebrews). 13
- 14 The Assyrian capital was (A. Nineveh, B. Babylon, C. Tyre, D. Sidon, E. Cairo). 14
15. Palestine is famous because (A. it is a large fertile plain, B. it is the homeland of the Hebrews, C. Joshua conquered it, D. the inhabitants were the chief navigators of ancient times, E. its government has been copied by modern peoples). 15
16. The first king of the Hebrews was (A. Saul, B. David, C. Solomon, D. Nebuchadnezzar, E. Sennacherib). 16
17. A dynasty is (A. the name of the ruling house of Egypt, B. a series of rulers of the same family, C. a name applied to the nobility of any country, D. kinsmen of the king, E. a king's bodyguard). 17
18. The first important code of laws preserved to us was written by (A. Hammurabi, B. Moses, C. Cyrus, D. Sargon, E. Menes). 18
- 19 The tomb of an Egyptian king was called (A. a pyramid, B. an hotel, C. a mummy, D. a sphinx, E. an abbey). 19
20. The boldest sailors of antiquity were the (A. Egyptians, B. Hebrews, C. Assyrians, D. Hittites, E. Phoenicians). 20

PART V (DAVES TEST)

EARLY GREEK CIVILIZATION

Directions: Answer in just the same way as in Part I.

1. Egyptian and Aegean civilizations were carried to the peninsula of Greece by the sailors of (A. Crete, B. Cyprus, C. Egypt, D. Syria, E. Palestine). 1
2. The alphabet was spread westward by the sailors of (A. Crete, B. Persia, C. Phoenicia, D. Egypt, E. Media) 2
3. The Greek father of gods and men was (A. Zeus, B. Hera, C. Apollo, D. Pluto, E. Achilles). 3
- 4 The Greek goddess of love was (A. Athena, B. Hera, C. Aphrodite, D. Iris, E. Helen). 4
5. The Greeks referred to people not of Greek blood as (A. non-Greeks, B. barbarians, C. pagans, D. Hellenes, E. foreigners) 5
6. The mountains of Greece (A. kept the Greeks from uniting into a single nation, B. aided the growth of agriculture, C. kept the Greeks from foreign trade, D. hindered development of individuality, E. hindered development of artistic ability). 6
7. The center of prehistoric Aegean civilization was (A. Knossos in Crete, B. Rhodes, C. Athens, D. Mycenae, E. Pergamum). 7

8. The mouthpiece of the gods was called (A an omen, B a prophecy, C. an oracle, D. astrology, E. a temple). 8
- 9 The permanent form of government in Greece was called (A. rule of nobility, B. republic, C. absolutism, D. city-state, E. central government). 9
- 10 The author of the Iliad and Odyssey was (A Aeneas, B. Ulysses, C. Anchises, D. Homer, E Vergil) 10

PART VI (DAVES TEST)

ORIENTAL CIVILIZATION

Directions: The statements below can be completed so as to be true by inserting a word or short phrase in each blank. Read each statement and decide what word or short phrase should be placed in each blank to make the statement most fully true. Write this word or short phrase on the blank line at the right of the statement.

- Example: Oriental means eastern I
- 1 Translation of Egyptian writing was made possible by the discovery of the I
2. A professional writer was called a 2
3. The builder of the temple at Jerusalem was 3
4. The greatest Phoenician colony was 4
5. The great founder of the Persian Empire was 5
6. A body preserved by Egyptian embalming is called a 6
7. The Hebrews, Phoenicians and Arabs belonged to the branch of the white race known as 7
8. The ancient capital of Egypt was 8
9. The horse and chariot was introduced into Egypt by foreign invaders called 9
10. Sennacherib was a famous king of 10
11. A Greek ruler who gained power by force was called a 11
- 12 Government in which the people share is called 12
13. An independent self-governing Greek community was called a 13
14. The oracle of Apollo was located at 14
15. Magna Graecia was located in the southern part of the peninsula of 15
16. The absolute rule of a monarch is called 16
- 17 The Hebrews were allowed to return to Jerusalem and rebuild the temple during the reign of 17
18. The Assyrians were finally conquered by the 18
19. The first cloth ever woven seems to have been 19
20. The schools of Egypt and Babylonia were attached to the 20

PART VII (DAVES TEST)

MISCELLANEOUS IDENTIFICATIONS

Directions: On the line following each item in the second column, place the letter of the item in the first column identified with it. As an example the correct letter has already been placed after the first item in the second column. Do not use one letter more than once.

A. Babylonian Captivity	1. Leader of Hebrews out of Egypt.	O	1
B. Book of the Dead	2. Nebuchadnezzar		2
C. Cairo	3. Ten Commandments.		3
D. Chaldean	4. Egyptian's guide after death.		4
E. Cheops	5. Babylonian writing.		5
F. Cyrus	6. Builder of Great Pyramid		6
G. Cuneiform	7. Land amid the rivers.		7
H. Egypt	8. Soothsayer or astrologer.		8
I. Iris	9. Egyptian sun-god		9
J. Jehovah	10. Temple at Memphis		10
K. Karnak	11. Prophet of Persian religion.		11
L. Menes	12. Hebrew God		12
M. Mesopotamia	13. Gift of Nile		13
N. Mosiac Code	14. Unification of Upper and Lower Egypt.		14
O. Moses			
P. Pharaoh			
Q. Re			
R. Zoroaster			

Directions: Do the same with these two columns.

A. Acropolis	1. Greek territory.	I
B. Aegean Sea	2. Center of early Greek culture.	2
C. Agamemnon	3. Mythical home of gods.	3
D. Apollo	4. Hill overlooking Athens ..	4
E. Athens	5. Leader of Greeks against Troy	5
F. Hector	6. Center of Greek culture.	6
G. Hellas	7. Center of Greek militarism.	7
H. Hera	8. Theft of Helen.	8
I. Homeric	9. God of music and prophecy.	9
J. Macedonian	10. Age of Cretan civilization. ...	10
K. Minoan	11. Wife of Zeus.	11
L. Mount Olympus	12. Age following Cretan civilization.	12
M. Paris		
N. Sparta		
O. Thebes		

PART VIII (DAVES TEST)

MISCELLANEOUS STATEMENTS

Directions: Some of the statements below are true and some are false. Place a plus mark on the short line at the right after each statement that you think is true and a zero on the short line after each statement that you think is

false. Do not guess; that is, do not place any mark after a statement unless you think you know whether it is true or false.

Example· The Alps Mountains are in Asia.	0
1. Prehistoric man invented the art of spinning and weaving.	1
2 The use of metals marked an important step in the advance of civilization.	2
3. Bronze is a mixture of copper and iron.	3
4. The deserts on each side of Egypt protected it from frequent invasion.	4
5 The early Egyptians worked out a system of measurements	5
6. The Egyptian belief in life after death had a lasting effect upon the history of the country	6
7 The Great Pyramid has been torn down	7
8 Egyptian civilization reached its highest point under the rule of the priests	8
9. The Egyptians had a solar calendar.	9
10. The code of Hammurabi recognized the equality of all social classes	10
11 The Babylonians wrote on paper made from the papyrus plant. ..	11
12. The Babylonians were famous astrologers.	12
13 The Babylonian story of the flood is very much like that of the Bible	13
14. The ancient Hebrew nation has had little influence upon civilization. ..	14
15. Solomon is reputed to have been the richest of the Hebrew kings	15
16. Cyrus carried the Hebrews into captivity	16
17 The Phoenicians spent most of their wealth in struggles for liberty.	17
18. The Phoenicians were the greatest sailors of antiquity.	18
19. The Hebrew kingdom was divided into parts at the end of Solomon's reign.	19
20. The Bible states that Nebuchadnezzar was punished for his treatment of the Jews.	20
21. The Jordan River empties into the Dead Sea	21
22. Traces of the ancient walls of Babylon still exist.	22
23 The Assyrians ruled the valley of the Nile for six hundred years. ..	23
24. The Assyrians gave to the world the belief in one God.	24
25. Crete's most important contribution to civilization was its system of government.	25

TEST USED IN EXPERIMENT B

THE RISE OF GREEK CIVILIZATION

PART I *

Directions: Complete each of the following statements by inserting the correct word or phrase in each blank.

1. The people who settled in Greece before the Greeks were the
They built (cities) and These people probably came from
2. The main Greek tribes were and The two leading cities were and The Greeks did not unite to form a national government because
3. The Greeks contributed and They developed three kinds of columns, the , , and The simplest column was The one using a scroll as the capital was The greatest temple in Athens was
It was built by
4. The Olympic games were held every years at , in honor of They were discontinued for centuries after Greek downfall but were revived in (year) in (place)
Now they are held every years. They were last held in (country) The country winning the most points at the last Olympic contests was
5. The chief Greek god was The god of the sun was
A fortune-telling temple in Greece is called an The most important one of these was located at in honor of (god)
6. The greatest Greek poet was; and the "father of history" was The three greatest philosophers were,, and
7. The Greeks fought against the (countries) and
They were conquered by (country) They formed colonies along the (seas) , , and
The names of the greatest colonies were (cities) and
8. The capital city of the Cretans was The excavation of the Cretan palace of has greatly increased our knowledge of the Cretans. The greatest Cretan king was
9. Alexander built a famous library at (city) His greatest battle against the Persians was Following his rule over Greece, the two Greek cities to become important were and
10. Assyrian writing was called This form of writing was first used by They wrote on (material) Many, perhaps

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most of Assyrian buildings were made of, while Babylonian buildings were made of

PART II

Directions: Cross out the wrong answer.

- | | |
|---|---------|
| 1. The Greeks used coins for money. | 1. T F |
| 2. We have been able to reconstruct a model of the Parthenon from the ruins which have been found. | 2. T F |
| 3. The Greeks made finer pottery than any other ancient peoples. | 3. T F |
| 4. Their vases were used in a number of ways. | 4. T F |
| 5. There is very little difference between the Assyrian and Greek writing | 5 T F |
| 6. Cretan art showed the influence of the Egyptians. | 6. T F |
| 7. Sometimes the Olympic contestants were fined for violation of the rules of the games. These fines were used to build statues to the gods | 7. T F |
| 8. The Greeks erected a statue to "the unknown God." | 8. T F |
| 9. They erected a statue to "all the gods." | 9 T F |
| 10. Few religious festivals were held in Greece. | 10. T F |
| 11. We are able to read the Cretan writing. | 11 T F |
| 12. Cretan civilization surpassed that of Egypt in use of bronze and colors in decoration | 12 T F |
| 13. The Cretans used gold extensively | 13. T F |
| 14. Alexander's armies were defeated by the Greeks. | 14. T F |
| 15. We know as much about the early Chinese as about the Egyptians. | 15. T F |
| 16. Indian and Greek writing resemble each other somewhat. | 16. T F |
| 17. The early Indian people were very religious. | 17. T F |
| 18. Large vases were used by the Greeks on graves as tombstones. | 18. T F |
| 19. A krater was a vase used for olive oil. | 19. T F |
| 20. Greek statues were life-like. | 20. T F |
| 21. Greeks seldom if ever used bronze. | 21. T F |
| 22. The Cretans did not bury their dead in coffins as the Egyptians did. | 22. T F |
| 23. The Greeks made wine. | 23 T F |
| 24. The Greeks cared little for the physical development of their bodies. | 24 T F |
| 25. Cylinder seals were used instead of sealstones by the Assyrians. | 25 T F |
| 26. Red figured pottery was one of the later developments in Greece. | 26. T F |
| 27. We have found dated Greek coins. | 27. T F |
| 28. A caryatid is an instrument for shooting arrows. | 28. T F |
| 29. The theater of Dionysus was one of the largest Greek theaters. | 29. T F |

30. The Porch of Maidens was found at Olympia.	30	T	F
31. It has been brought to this country and placed in a museum.	31.	T	F
32. The Greeks disliked color and used very little of it	32.	T	F
33. The Greeks adopted many of the Roman customs.	33	T	F
34. Schliemann excavated Troy	34.	T	F
35. The Greek house is built around the garden.	35	T	F
36. Greek jewelry surpassed Egyptian jewelry	36	T	F
37. It is difficult to tell Assyrian art from Greek art	37.	T	F
38. Greece reached its height in the third century B C	38.	T	F
39. A Greek tyrant was almost always cruel	39.	T	F
40. The Greeks, Assyrians, and Cretans used glass.	40	T	F
41. Myron was a great sculptor	41	T	F
42. The Greek ideas of life after death resembled those of Egypt.	42.	T	F
43. The Greek alphabet resembles our own.	43	T	F
44. Greek vases were sometimes five feet high.	44.	T	F
45. The statue of Athena in the Parthenon was supposed to have been made of gold and ivory	45	T	F
46. The Greeks traded more with Carthage and Rome than they did with the eastern Mediterranean countries	46.	T	F
47. Money was used for prizes in the Olympic games.	47.	T	F
48. Olive oil was one of the chief exports of Greece.	48.	T	F
49. Nerva was the most popular of the Greek goddesses	49	T	F
50. It is surprising that the Greeks were interested in art	50	T	F

PART III

Directions: Define in the space provided each of the following.

1. democracy
2. acropolis
3. kylix
4. terra-cotta
5. tunic
6. Hellenic
7. frieze
8. ostracism
9. Agora
10. Philippic

PART IV (DAVES TEST)

GREECE DURING THE FIFTH AND FOURTH CENTURIES, B.C.

Directions: Below are a number of statements, in each of which are parentheses containing five expressions. One of these expressions completes the statement so as to make it more fully true than does any one of the other four. Indicate

which one of the five expressions is the correct one by copying its letter on the short blank line at the right of the statement.

- Example: A rich king of Lydia was (A. Richard, B. Cyrus, C. Croesus, D. Saul, E. David). C .
1. The Persian Empire was organized by (A. Xerxes, B. Darius I, C. Cyrus, D. Croesus, E. Alexander). I
 2. The real cause of the Persian expeditions against Greece was (A. the revolt of Ionia, B. unity of Greek government, C. conflict of two civilizations, D. Athenian military strength, E. Persian conquest of Lydia) 2
 3. The battle of Marathon was fought in the year (A. 480 B.C., B. 492 B.C., C. 331 B.C., D. 490 B.C., E. 500 B.C.). 3
 4. The Greeks won the battle of Marathon largely through the generalship of (A. Leonidas, B. Xerxes, C. Lycurgus, D. Cimon, E. Miltiades) 4
 5. A traitor caused the defeat of the Spartan army at (A. Thebes, B. Mycale, C. Thermopylae, D. Salamis, E. Mt. Athos). 5
 6. The leader in building the Athenian Navy was (A. Themistocles, B. Cimon, C. Aristides, D. Pericles, E. Pisistratus) 6
 7. The Athenians won a great naval victory at (A. Rhodes, B. Syracuse, C. Salamis, D. Byzantium, E. Carthage) 7
 8. The typical Athenian warship was called a (A. schooner, B. sail boat, C. brig, D. sloop, E. trireme) 8
 9. Carthage was located on the (A. island of Sicily, B. coast of north Africa, C. coast of the Black Sea, D. southern coast of Italy, E. shore of the Aegean). 9
 10. Carthaginian attacks upon the Greek colonists of Sicily were checked by the battle of (A. Syracuse, B. Himera, C. Mycale, D. Philippi, E. Athens). 10
 11. The government of Athens during the fifth century B.C. was (A. an aristocracy, B. a monarchy, C. a republic, D. a direct democracy, E. a dictatorship) 11
 12. At the center of Athenian political life was the (A. assembly, B. president, C. nobility, D. senate, E. popular leader). 12
 13. Athens reached the height of its development under the leadership of (A. Aristides, B. Themistocles, C. Cimon, D. Pericles, E. Demosthenes). 13
 14. The origin of the Athenian Empire was the (A. Persian conquest, B. Delian Confederacy, C. colonial expansion, D. downfall of Lydia, E. democracy of government). 14
 15. One great defect of the Athenian Empire was the (A. practice of universal citizenship, B. independence of local governments, C. lack of system of representation, D. smallness of Athenian navy, E. failure to collect tribute) 15

16. More than one-third of the population of the Athenian city-state belonged to the (A. nobility, B. farming class, C. artisans, D. merchants, E. slave class). 16
17. The Greeks excelled in the art of (A. music, B. painting, C. sculpture, D. weaving, E. glass blowing). 17
18. The Athenian Empire was finally conquered by (A. Macedonia, B. Rome, C. Persia, D. Sparta, E. Syracuse) 18
19. The Peloponnesian War was a contest between (A. Sparta and Thebes, B. Athens and Persia, C. Carthage and Rome, D. Sparta and Athens, E. Corinth and Syracuse). 19
20. Spartan supremacy in Greece was broken by (A. Corinth, B. Thebes, C. Athens, D. Carthage, E. Persia) 20
21. Greek independence was ended by Philip, king of (A. Persia, B. Babylonia, C. Syria, D. Egypt, E. Macedonia). 21
22. The Greeks were urged to make a last stand for their freedom by (A. Pericles, B. Demosthenes, C. Epaminondas, D. Plato, E. Socrates). 22
23. Philip did not lead an invasion of Persia because he was (A. killed, B. unable to raise an army, C. unwilling to leave home, D. ill, E. afraid of the outcome). 23
24. Alexander was taught by the Greek philosopher (A. Plato, B. Socrates, C. Aristotle, D. Thucydides, E. Herodotus). 24
25. Alexander's conquests extended as far east as (A. Babylon, B. Ionia, C. The Persian Gulf, D. the Indus, E. China). 25
26. Alexander established his capitol at (A. Persepolis, B. Tyre, C. Babylon, D. Nineveh, E. Sardis). 26
27. The Persians suffered their greatest defeat at the battle of (A. Chaeronea, B. Issus, C. Leuctra, D. Alexandria, E. Arbela). 27
28. After the death of Alexander, Egypt was ruled by (A. the Ptolemies, B. the Seleucides, C. a native Egyptian family, D. the Macedonian kings, E. Alexander's sons) 28
29. A great library was established at (A. Sardis, B. Babylon, C. Alexandria, D. Thebes, E. Memphis). 29
30. The civilization which spread throughout the territory conquered by Alexander is called (A. Macedonian, B. Oriental, C. Hellenic, D. Alexandrian, E. Hellenistic) 30

PART V (DAVES TEST)

FAMOUS MEN AND PLACES AND IMPORTANT TERMS

Directions: Below you will find two columns, one containing the names of thirteen famous men of Greece and the other descriptions of eleven of them. Indicate the correct man for each description by placing the letter found in front of his name on the short line at the right of the description. Do not use the name of any man more than once. As an example, the correct letter has already been placed after the first description,

A. Demosthenes	1. An early Athenian law giver J	1
B. Epaminondas	2. The greatest Greek orator.	2
C. Epicurus	3. A great philosopher and teacher.	3
D. Leonidas	4. A great historian.	4
E. Miltiades	5. The greatest Greek sculptor.	5
F. Nicias	6. The originator of the phalanx.	6
G. Pericles	7. A Spartan military hero.	7
H. Phidias	8. The hero of the battle of Salamis.	8
I. Socrates	9. An Athenian military hero.	9
J. Solon	10. The Athenian leader of the Golden Age.	10
K. Themistocles	11. A teacher of Stoicism.	11
L. Thucydides			
M. Timon			

Directions: Do the same with these terms and expressions

A. Acropolis	1. Pure Greek culture.	1
B. Autocracy	2. A hill overlooking Athens	2
C. Chaeronea	3. One of a series of orations by Demosthenes.	3
D. Delian League	4. A place where Philip defeated the Greeks.	4
E. Democracy	5. Heavy column formation of troops.	5
F. Hellenic	6. Government of the people	6
G. Hellenistic	7. Colonial expansion.	7
H. Imperialism	8. The rule of one man.	8
I. Phalanx	9. A place where the Persians defeated the Spartans.	9
J. Philippic	10. Greek-like culture.	10
K. Stoicism			
L. Thermopylae			

PART VI (DAVES TEST)

MISCELLANEOUS

Directions: In the blank to the right, write the term, person or date, which corresponds to each of the following descriptions, as shown in this example:

	The man who conquered the known world.	Alexander
1	The most beautiful temple of Athens.	1
2	The most important product imported by Athens.	2
3	The Athenian method of trying accused persons.	3
4	The year of the battle of Thermopylae.	4
5	Commonly considered the best soldiers of Greece.	5
6	The year of the Battle of Marathon.	6
7	The year of the Battle of Chaeronea.	7
8	The year of the Battle of Arbela.	8
9	The sea upon which Athens is located	9
10	A prominent Greek colony on the Black Sea.	10

11. A long poem which tells a story	11
12. A drama which deals with serious and pathetic incidents	12
13. The most elaborate of the Greek columns.	13
14. A richly ornamented band of carvings.	14
15. The most famous of the national games.	15
16. The father of Alexander the Great	16
17. The ruler who encouraged the mingling of people of East and West.	17
18. The most famous statue of the goddess of love and beauty	18
19. The man who first wrote the laws of Athens	19
20. The name given to all lands peopled by Greeks.	20

PART VII (DAVES TEST)

MISCELLANEOUS STATEMENTS

Directions: Some of the statements below are true and some are false. Place a plus mark on the short line at the right after each statement which you think is true and a zero on the short line after each statement which you think is false. Do not guess; that is, do not place any mark after a statement unless you think you know whether it is true or false.

Example: Crete is located in the eastern Mediterranean Sea.	+	1
1. The Mediterranean Sea was the center of civilization for four thousand years		1
2. The climate of the Mediterranean region varies only slightly		2
3. The Minoans knew the art of writing		3
4. The people of the Homeric Age lived very luxurious lives		4
5. Men of Homeric times seldom engaged in commerce		5
6. Greece is a low, flat plain in southern Europe		6
7. The Greeks became a commercial people.		7
8. The warm climate of Greece discouraged outdoor life.		8
9. Solon gave to every Athenian citizen the right to vote at the assembly.		9
10. Many Athenian officers were chosen by lot		10
11. The free women of Athens were allowed to vote		11
12. Sparta was located in the Peloponnesus.		12
13. Sparta was a militaristic city-state		13
14. Girls and women lived less in public in Sparta than in the other Greek states.		14
15. Ares was the Greek god of war		15
16. The twelve leading deities of Greece were supposed to live on Mount Olympus.		16
17. Modern Olympian Games are a revival of those of Ancient Greece.		17

18	Greek colonies helped to spread Greek ideals and culture	18
19.	The Spartans came to the aid of the Athenians at Marathon.	19
20.	The victory of the Greeks over the Persians saved the Mediter- ranean region from Oriental despotism	20
21	Pericles was the greatest Greek statesman.	21
22	The Athenian Empire was unsuccessful and shortlived.	22
23	Athenians paid little attention to the grain laws	23
24.	Athena was the Greek goddess of love and beauty.	24
25.	Greek sculptors often colored their statues.	25
26	The Greeks believed in "moderation in all things."	26
27.	The Peloponnesian War ended with the defeat of Sparta	27
28.	Athens, Sparta, and Thebes, each in turn, united Greece.	28
29.	Greece was finally conquered by Macedonia.	29
30	The most practical and patriotic city of the Greeks during the Persian War was Corinth.	30

TABLE 32

COMPARISON OF SCORES OF GROUP I AND GROUP II ON 175 TEST ITEMS *

Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI	Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI	Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI
1	5	2	-3	36	4	14	10	71	1	1	0
2	17	14	-3	37	5	7	2	72	1	1	0
3	17	15	-2	38	5	9	4	73	5	5	0
4	0	-2	-2	39	0	11	11	74	21	22	1
5	5	4	-1	40	2	18	16	75	22	24	2
6	4	6	2	41	3	11	8	76	10	10	0
7	4	3	-1	42	0	15	15	77	21	10	-11
8	6	12	6	43	10	15	5	78	15	11	-4
9	7	14	7	44	12	15	3	79	16	12	-4
10	18	11	-7	45	19	24	5	80	20	14	-6
11	12	18	6	46	13	13	0	81	20	17	-3
12	10	3	-7	47	20	23	3	82	19	18	-1
13	16	8	-8	48	14	14	0	83	21	17	-4
14	12	10	-2	49	0	0	0	84	17	16	-1
15	7	16	9	50	1	4	3	85	16	14	-2
16	6	13	7	51	6	4	-2	86	19	12	-7
17	7	4	-3	52	16	18	2	87	9	6	-3
18	25	20	-5	53	14	15	1	88	15	16	1
19	18	13	-5	54	4	0	-4	89	18	17	-1
20	16	18	2	55	20	11	-9	90	13	20	7
21	7	16	9	56	4	5	1	91	7	15	8
22	14	17	3	57	-3	13	16	92	7	7	0
23	1	1	0	58	2	13	11	93	8	17	9
24	3	7	4	59	7	13	6	94	3	3	0
25	12	8	-4	60	17	13	-4	95	19	18	-1
26	5	0	-5	61	12	10	-2	96	2	2	4
27	10	22	12	62	20	15	-5	97	4	5	1
28	-4	-6	-2	63	8	6	-2	98	15	12	-3
29	10	11	1	64	4	7	3	99	11	13	2
30	10	9	-1	65	1	7	6	100	8	6	-2
31	11	18	7	66	23	21	-2	101	1	6	5
32	6	8	2	67	13	20	7	102	12	14	2
33	6	17	11	68	1	11	10	103	11	8	-3
34	4	9	5	69	7	5	-2	104	10	13	3
35	13	8	-5	70	1	6	5	105	11	12	1

* DI represents the difference between an initial and a final score on an item for Group I, and DII the corresponding difference for Group II.

The items included in the analysis have for convenience of reference been numbered consecutively from 1 to 175. Items from the test used in Experiment A, Part I, are numbered 1-54, and Part II, 55-69. Items from Part I of the test used in Experiment B are numbered 70-125, and from Part II, 126-175.

TABLE 32 (continued)

Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI	Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI	Item No.	DI	DII	DII-DI
106	19	13	-6	130	18	17	-1	153	8	17	9
107	5	4	-1	131	15	19	4	154	19	6	-13
108	-2	3	5	132	11	18	7	155	21	13	-8
109	6	9	3	133	-5	11	16	156	9	12	3
110	9	12	3	134	6	13	7	157	5	2	-3
111	14	14	0	135	4	13	9	158	12	4	-8
112	19	14	-5	136	16	19	3	159	13	8	-5
113	14	8	-6	137	11	16	5	160	3	9	6
114	-3	0	3	138	20	23	3	161	5	9	4
115	-1	2	3	139	13	7	-6	162	15	21	6
116	-5	-2	3	140	12	16	4	163	7	12	5
117	5	8	3	141	4	9	5	164	16	12	-4
118	0	1	1	142	7	12	5	165	6	21	15
119	-1	-1	0	143	2	6	4	166	11	10	-1
120	-1	-1	0	144	-3	6	9	167	-2	-5	-3
121	3	0	-3	145	3	0	-3	168	10	2	-8
122	-3	-3	0	146	11	21	10	169	5	14	9
123	0	1	1	147	7	14	7	170	15	15	0
124	-9	-6	-3	148	9	6	-3	171	4	12	8
125	-8	-5	3	149	7	3	-4	172	9	13	4
126	8	9	1	150	6	8	2	173	8	13	5
127	8	9	1	151	4	18	14	174	9	5	-4
128	12	7	-5	152	5	18	13	175	19	19	0
129	8	5	-3								

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